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ABSTRACT

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas, organized under a Federal grant in 1943 and later constituted as an agency of state government by legislative mandate, is charged under its basic law to coordinate the work of the Federal, State, and local government units endeavoring to improve the travel and working conditions of Texas migrant farm workers. A basic responsibility in this effort is to survey conditions and determine problem areas related to migrant workers and take an active part in the development of assistance programs. The Commission's efforts in correlating and evaluating operational programs for migrants and their families is the basis for this annual report. An overview of Texas migrant labor describes the emergence and finally the domination of the seasonal agricultural labor force by Spanish-speaking people. Topics discussed include Texas agriculture and migrant labor, the Texas Inter-Agency Task Force on Migrant Labor, the role of the Church in migrant matters, bilingual education in Texas, alien labor and immigration, and a description of the Farmers Home Administration. Current developments in education, housing, health, job development and employment, and resumes of specific Federal programs are also presented. A look at the trends in farm labor and what has been happening to the local domestic, migratory, and foreign worker in the past decade comprises the summary of data for 1971. A related document is ED 057 936. (HBC)

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TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR

**Annual Report
1971**

The Texas Good Neighbor Commission

RC006641

PREFACE

The Good Neighbor Commission of Texas, organized under a federal grant in 1943 and later constituted as an agency of state government by legislative mandate, is charged under its basic law to coordinate the work of the federal, state and local government units endeavoring to improve the travel and working conditions of Texas migrant farm workers. A basic responsibility in this effort is to survey conditions and determine problem areas related to migrant workers and take an active part in the development of assistance programs.

The Commission, in carrying out this general mandate, has for a number of years relied on the excellent cooperation from government and volunteer agencies, as well as its own research, in correlating and evaluating operational programs for migrants and their families. This work is essential for the preparation of an annual report on this subject which must be factual and constructive as well as timely.

We of the Commission are grateful for the collaboration received and welcome any comments or suggestions that could assist us in making this Report of use to those persons involved in serving the needs of the migrant workers of this state.

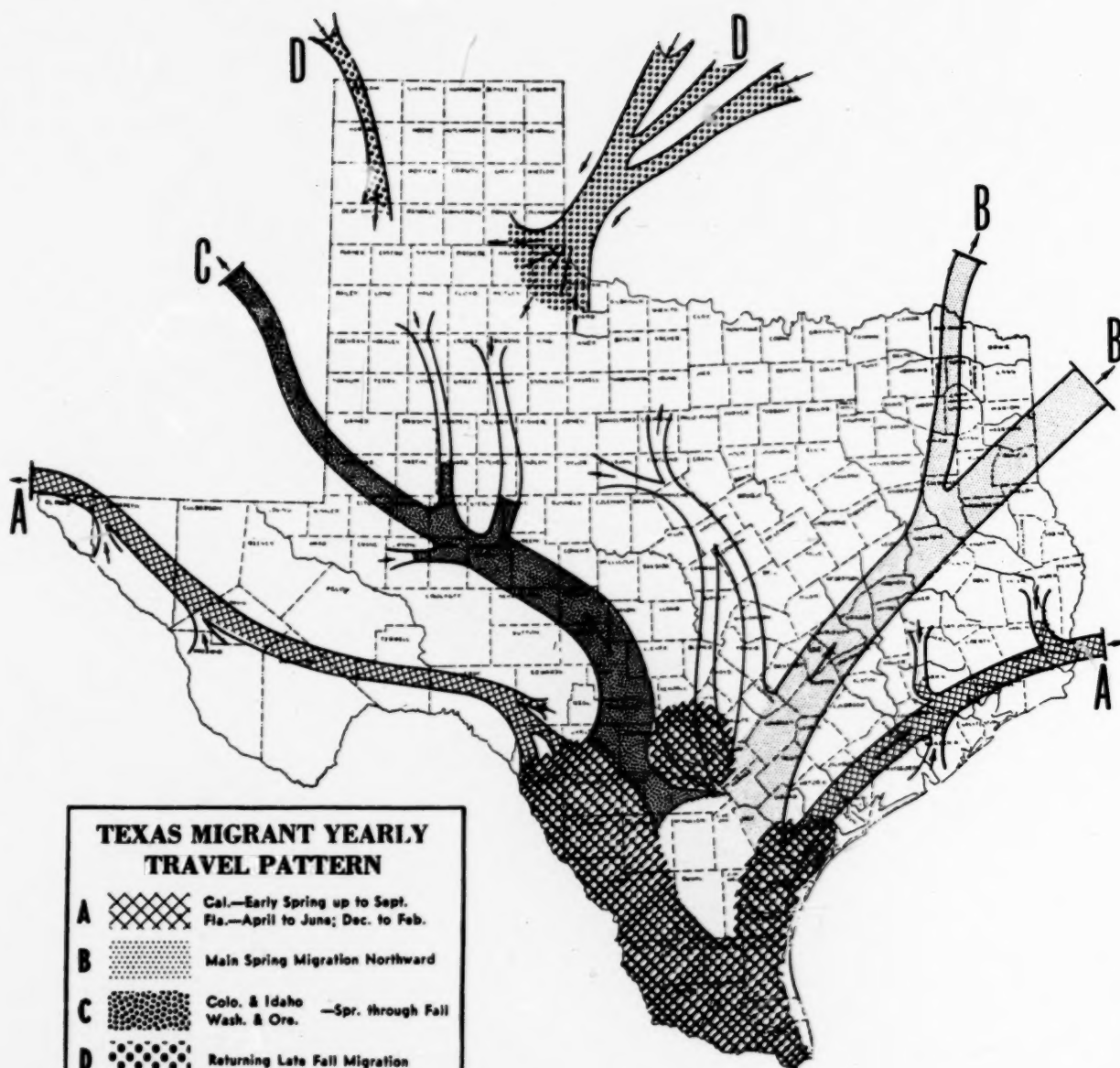
TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR

Annual Report

1971

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TEXAS MIGRANT YEARLY TRAVEL PATTERN

A		Cal.—Early Spring up to Sept. Fla.—April to June; Dec. to Feb.
B		Main Spring Migration Northward
C		Colo. & Idaho —Spr. through Fall Wash. & Ore.
D		Returning Late Fall Migration
		Principal Source of Migrant Labor

TEXAS MIGRANT LABOR — AN OVERVIEW

For the past several years we have presented the readers of this report a thumbnail sketch — an Overview — of the Texas migrant farm worker. The primary reason for this approach of introducing "who and why" are migrants was because until recently this group of people, this stratum of society, was either ignored, taken for granted or misunderstood; hence, not very many people knew very much about them. The order in which these conceptions are presented is chronologically important as it is indicative of the evolution of public and academic thought concerning the migrants during the last decade. The dust-bowl days, the era of the great Depression and the "Grapes of Wrath" were topics not easily put aside or ignored but the people involved were ignored as they seemed to conveniently disappear from the scene and evidently were taking care of themselves. For the next two decades traveling farm workers changed little in their life style or the routine of making a living following the crops, there was, however, a very definite change taking place in the ethnic make-up of this group of nomadic field workers. We see the Spanish speaking people emerging and soon dominating the seasonal agricultural labor force.

We have said that these people were taken for granted. In reality they were virtually invisible, they kept pretty much to themselves seldom intruding or even venturing into areas foreign to their culture and abilities. At any given time the public could find the same brand names of canned fruits and vegetables on the grocer's shelves and fresh produce was always available in season so it was reasonable to assume that everything must have been in perfect harmony. This public complacency, bordering on disinterest, continued until researchers and investigators were able to document and prove the true extent of poverty in our nation and to further prove that the entire sector of migrant farm workers lives at a level of bare subsistence. Since it was impossible to refute these findings or to look the other way, it then became urgently necessary that something be done about it — and that is when we found out that we really did not know or understand the people who weeded our fields, harvested our crops and processed our canned goods. It was hard to realize that we are no longer dealing with anglo dust-bowlers but rather with a group predominately Latin in background. It was hard to realize that the Mexican field workers, the "braceros" of the 50's and early 60's, had been replaced by people of the same heritage who, for the most part, were citizens and who did not return to Mexico after each season to wait until they were needed again next year as the "braceros" did. It was hard to realize that drastic attitudinal changes and new procedural techniques would be necessary to bring these people into full participation in a society of which they are a part and in which they have a rightful place; at this point of realization is where we stand today.

We feel safe in saying that it is doubtful that anyone who reads the papers, listens to radio or TV remains uninformed about the migrant "situation". Articles, declarations, manifestos, ultimatums and revelations have appeared in all the different media in such volume that the general public is now well aware that what was merely an alarmist prognostication a few years ago is today an at-your-front-door reality. Nor is it any longer necessary to define a migrant (except in some program guidelines or eligibility criteria) as we all know who we are talking about and we are well informed about the situation related to himself and family and

Texas Migrant Labor — An Overview

as related to the rest of the nation. It is for this reason that we will give but the briefest of Overview treatment and confine it to the evolution of the Mexican American migrant of Texas as we know him today.

As we entered the twentieth century some marked changes were beginning to take place in the agriculture industry and its labor needs which eventually resulted in the complete take over (with the exception of the East coast) of agricultural field work by Mexican Americans. It was only natural that this would occur as we will better understand by reviewing some of the circumstances involved. First of all, the United States acquired an instant population increase with the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848. The Mexicans who lived in this great territory, later to be known as the Southwest, were, and would continue to be, land oriented and most of them decided to take U.S. citizenship rather than uproot and seek a new beginning in Mexico. By 1900 immigration from Europe had been severely restricted by the Alien Contract Labor Law and Asian immigration had long since been curtailed by the Exclusion Act. Shortly the ranks of the resident Mexican Americans were to be swollen by almost a million exiles, from all social levels, fleeing the political unrest and oppression that was the rule in Mexico during the era of revolution and upheaval. The significance of this exodus is apparent when one learns that this is the only time (1910-1920) that Mexico showed an actual loss in population since statistics gathering began in 1800. About this same time the Immigration Act of 1917 detailed the requirements to be met by Western Hemisphere aliens seeking temporary admission to work in industry or agriculture for a fixed length of time. Later, when national quotas were established for the Eastern Hemisphere in 1924, thereby sharply diminishing immigration from Europe, there was no effect on the de facto "open border" with Mexico and the immigration into the Southwest, particularly into Texas, continued unabated. Then came the event that most scholars agree was the catalyst for the farm labor turnabout; the manpower shortage of World War II. When existing farm labor in all parts of the country was drawn into war industry and into the armed forces, it was replaced by the Mexican Americans who were unquestionably suited for farm work by their rural traditions and culture but who were unqualified for industry because of language difficulty, discrimination, lack of skills, etc.

It became immediately apparent that the demand for labor at peak season harvest in the Great Lakes area, the Mid-West and the Northwest, involving thousands of workers, could not be satisfactorily met with our domestic labor supply - it would be necessary to import labor. It also became apparent that regulations would have to be developed to control and safeguard the alien worker while in the United States on a temporary work assignment. This was the birth of the Bracero Program. It was of necessity a crash program, it involved thousands of men, it required understanding and cooperation between two governments and there was no precedent from which to draw experience. The initial agreement between the United States and Mexico was reached in late 1942 but it was not until 1951, in July, that Congress enacted Public Law 78 (the Bracero Act) which codified and regulated such matters as recruitment, transportation, working conditions, contractual obligations, etc. The original agreement, frequently modified, was to continue until the end of 1964 when, for lack of congressional renewal, the program ceased to exist.

Texas Migrant Labor — An Overview

The Texas farm labor pool, as we have shown, is made up almost entirely of Mexican Americans and although the majority of them are native born American citizens, they continue to hold a strong cultural affinity with Mexico and customs related to their background. All of these field workers have, at one time or another, migrated to a job or in search of a job, either interstate or within the boundaries of Texas. They have traveled as singles, as a family unit or as members of a crew and have all tasted the bitter pills of discrimination, deprivation and poverty. These people are part of a distinct subculture of American society and are seemingly thwarted in any attempt to break out and up as they are boxed in by these facts, which we repeat from last year's report because of continued relevancy:

- 1) Family earnings for the most part below poverty level
- 2) Home base being the most depressed area in the nation
- 3) Low educational achievement; 58% functional illiterates
- 4) Sub-standard housing both at home and in the working area
- 5) Little health education and insufficient health attention
- 6) Extremely low competency in English
- 7) A dearth of marketable skills

Coupled with the above list, and adding to the frustration, is the fact that to ameliorate these problems and inequities becomes everyday more difficult because the migrant's situation becomes everyday more difficult. Since World War II the migrant farm worker population has been constantly on the increase, particularly in Texas and California and most particularly in the Lower Rio Grande Valley. This is due in part to a continuing liberal immigration policy on the part of the U.S. (despite a Western Hemisphere quota set in 1965), due in part to the unbelievable population crush of unemployed and unskilled Mexicans at the border. The latest census figures show that some of the border cities on the Mexican side have more than doubled their population during the last decade and that all of them are now far larger than their twin city on the American side. This means that there is a constantly increasing inflow of alien job-seekers (some with permits but the majority without) who will and do work for less than our own people. Thus the economic and social status of our Texas farm worker and migrant tends to stagnate, even deteriorate, as the meager improvement in wages over the last few years has been more than offset by less job time and also by inflation.

As we have shown in previous reports the total number of Texas migrants on the stream has decreased at a steady 3-4% since 1965 but in 1970 the decrease was 7%. Figures from the Department of Labor show that during the decade there was a 1/3 decrease in total "man-months" of seasonal work. The 1971 "guesstimate" (necessary due to the inability to tag the "freewheelers") places the decrease in migrants on the move at 10% and the decrease in job opportunities at 12-15%. So we have the almost untenable situation of an increasing labor pool and a decreasing number of jobs, of decreasing yearly earnings and an increasing cost of living. Couple this with the uncertainty of weather, crop yield and local labor availability and the picture becomes a pretty gloomy one. Even with a well planned season backed up with job referrals, there is no real guarantee that the migrant will find the employment for which he has traveled so far and that he so desperately needs.

Texas Migrant Labor — An Overview

As recently, as seven or eight years ago the migrants seemed to get by somehow at the bottom of the economic totem-pole. Little was heard from them since that was where they had always been, at the bottom, and where they would continue to be — it was an accepted fact of life for them. That has all changed now. The migrant and his family cannot confront their situation alone any longer; the only reliable tool they have to earn their way - an earnest desire to work - is no longer sufficient, more tools are needed. Now that a national awareness exists, now that we know that there is little opportunity for the uneducated person who possesses no job skills and speaks little or no English, and now that the challenge has been posted significant progress is being made in program development and funding to supply the tools with which to build a better life for the migrants. These efforts deserve the cooperation and assistance of all of us.

TEXAS AGRICULTURE AND MIGRANT LABOR

The national scene in agriculture for 1971 was one of abundant crops and record breaking harvests. Bumper crops in corn, soybeans and wheat contributed to a \$2.24 billion increase over 1970 in the total national crop worth. Led by the No. 1 exporting state, Illinois, U. S. farm exports after setting a record of \$7.2 billion in 1970 set a new high of \$7.8 billion for 1971 with soybeans and wheat bringing home over a billion dollars each. Export values amounted to 16% of the nation's total for the first time and hold-over inventories were comfortably back to normal. However, in Texas agriculture last year there was nothing record breaking, or even normal.

The year 1971 for agriculture in Texas was, as one journalist put it, the "Year of Disasters" and no region in the state was to escape completely. Disasters were to range from catastrophic to unpleasant but they all extracted a toll in production, in economy and in damage. The first half of the year was to see drought or near drought conditions throughout the state. The lack of moisture put back the entire schedule of land preparation and planting to the extent that much dryland acreage was simply left abandoned and that which was planted produced pitiful yields. By midyear rains broke the drought but in the Coastal Bend and the Lower Rio Grande Valley the pendulum was to swing too far in the other direction bringing floods and rain damage. The September appearance of hurricanes Fern and Edith proved to be a double-edged sword; the winds of Fern played havoc with maturing cotton and sorghum and the torrential rains sent inland by Edith caused flooding in the Lower Valley that delayed land preparation and planting of Fall and Winter vegetables. As we will see later, a part of this region was declared a natural disaster area and thus received assistance programs to help repair the \$12 million worth of damage as well as Disaster Unemployment Insurance (DUI) to aid those who were put out of work due to the excessive rains.

Of Texas' fourteen leading crops only three showed improvement over 1970. Field corn production increased by about 30% while rice was up 9% and hay barely surpassed last year's production by virtue of an excellent Fall crop. The picture, however, is quite different when we consider our three principal crops:

- 1) Cotton production was down by almost 15% (equal to 460,000 bales) from virtually the same planted and harvested acreage resulting in the lowest statewide yield in memory. But despite the reduced production cotton was still the leading money crop (worth \$417 million) as shown by the chart at the top of the following page. The compensating factor here was a 6 cents per pound price increase from 20.5 to 26.5 cents; a 30% upward adjustment.
- 2) Sorghum grain production was lower by 9% (equal to 26 million bushels) on about the same amount of acreage and the yield dropped from 56 bushels per acre to 52.
- 3) Wheat production in 1971 was a whopping 42% below the previous year. This was principally due to a 36% reduction in acres planted and the rest was due to a decrease in yield from 24 bushels per acre to 21.

Texas Agriculture and Migrant Labor

Contribution of the Three Principal Crops

	1971	1970	1969	1968	1967
Total dollar value: (in billions)	\$1.368	\$1.387	\$1.214	\$1.431	\$1.277
Percentage contribution:					
Cotton	30%	30%	23%	31%	29%
Sorghum	26%	26%	28%	22%	27%
Rice	10%	8%	8%	10%	10%
Total contribution:	66%	64%	59%	63%	66%

Despite the adversities of weather vegetable production amounted to \$142.3 million (actually an increase of 1% in value over 1970) but of more significance is that this production came from 12 % less harvested acres. Here we are confronted by yet another cause-and-effect sequence reducing even more the work and earning potential of our farm workers. Then we have the fact that acreage not planted and acreage abandoned means no work hoeing or weeding and obviously, no harvesting work. Add to this the use of labor saving herbicides and mechanical harvesters and it is easy to understand what is happening to migrant job opportunities here in Texas. The following table shows vividly what is occurring with the total migrant work force on the move within the state. Attention is called to the three mid-summer months which have shown a uniform demand the last three years and then a sharp drop off last year. Although a part of last year's decrease in intrastate migrant movement was because of an increase in the number of migrant families settling out in the various work areas and thus becoming "local" and not "migrant" labor, nevertheless the principal reason for the decrease is the simple fact that agricultural work is inexorably diminishing and there is no halt, or even leveling off, in sight.

STATEWIDE SEASONAL EMPLOYMENT—INTRASTATE MIGRANTS
(thousands)

Year	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
1968	1.3	2.2	9.5	19.4	13.9	6.4	5.9	5.8	12.0
1969	1.5	2.6	10.0	20.3	14.5	4.3	5.0	4.4	7.3
1970	2.0	2.1	7.0	19.4	14.6	3.5	1.5	2.7	5.6
1971	1.5	1.4	6.2	17.7	12.6	3.6	1.2	1.6	2.5

Texas Employment Commission

The Texas Employment Commission has released its figures on seasonal job placements in Texas agriculture and the following chart seems to indicate that the number of jobs available to both migrant and local workers has steadied from its downward trend (from 1967 to 1970 placements decreased by 67,400).

Texas Agriculture and Migrant Labor

Seasonal Farm Job Placement in Texas

	1971	1970	1969	1968
Total Placements	197,000	195,600	206,000	234,000
Average per month	16,420	16,305	17,220	19,506
High month	34,014 June	28,695 Aug.	39,028 June	38,865 June
Low month	5,032 Nov.	5,290 Sept.	6,812 Sept.	7,607 July

This leveling off is undoubtedly true, but the important question that must be asked is, "How much work does the job actually produce?". The amount of work determines the amount of earnings so we must look at the records of man-months of actual work to prove the unremitting attrition in total work — and the records prove it. The following figures from the Department of Labor for the last decade, comparing national and Texas totals, clearly illustrate our point.

I - Man-Months of Seasonal Farm Labor: U.S. and Texas
(in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	% change 1960-1970
U.S.	9,151	8,079	6,604	-30%
Texas	2,216	1,385	1,066	-52%

II - Man-Months of Migratory Farm Labor: U.S. and Texas
(in thousands)

U.S.	1,675	1,529	1,181	-29%
Texas	268	130	63	-76%

The figures from 1960 to 1965 include foreign contract workers and braceros so the work loss during this period was at their expense — less labor was imported (see Table I in our section on "Alien Labor & Immigration"). Since 1965, and although the labor force was constantly increasing, the work loss has been absorbed by domestic local and migrant workers. As is shown, the rate of decline in the use of farm labor in Texas has been faster than the national rate and can be explained with one word: cotton. Two decades ago cotton was the most labor intensive crop in the nation. It was also, and still is, Texas' principal crop. So it follows that when mechanization and the use of herbicides virtually eliminated cotton chopping and picking the effect on the worker demand in Texas was much more pronounced than in any other region. Hence the disproportion in the percentage change for the last decade. And thus we see the Texas metamorphosis from that of a labor importer, to help with the cotton, to a point of near zero in work opportunities for this same crop.

Texas Agriculture and Migrant Labor

During the period when mechanization was taking over the major part of the work load, our displaced intrastate migrants were forced to move into interstate travel in search of work. This interstate, or out migration, reached its peak in 1965 when work formerly done by braceros became available to domestic workers. Since that time there has been a minimal yearly shrinkage (from 3 to 5 percent) in the migrant work force until 1969 when the curve began to steepen and when we come to last year it had reached an almost unbelievable 24% as estimated by the USDA. Needless to say, adjusting to this reality is no easy matter for the displaced farm worker or the society of which he is a part.

The following table on cotton production, although now having little bearing on migrant workers, illustrates the wild and unpredictable fluctuations that take place in this important state crop from year to year. Of particular interest are the matching years of 1966-67 and 1970-71 in which actual production was almost identical; but what about the variation in acres planted and in yield per acre?

TEXAS COTTON

Year	Acres Planted	Harvested	Yield	Bales	% Change Prev. Year
1964	6,225,000	5,675,000	348	4,123,000	
1965	5,850,000	5,565,000	402	4,662,000	+ 11.3
1966	4,265,000	3,968,000	385	3,182,000	-32.
1967	3,960,000	3,525,000	376	2,767,000	-11.
1968	4,450,000	4,125,000	404	3,475,000	+ 23.
1969	5,175,000	4,675,000	305	2,862,300	-17.5
1970	5,251,800	4,851,000	335	3,247,000	+ 13.
1971	5,265,700	4,735,400	282	2,782,000	-14.3

The region where bales produced took the biggest tumble and where the yield was incredibly low was the High Rolling Plains. At year's end in this area half of the cotton remained unharvested and the regional figures on production and yield are really much worse than the statewide figures indicate because these data are partially bouyed up by excellent crop results from the Lower Valley. Last year's production in the four county area (Hidalgo, Cameron, Willacy and Starr) totaled 265,000 bales, compared with 187,000 for the previous year, with a yield set at 540 against 321 for the year before. But even with this help the statewide yield figure fell to a disastrous 282.

As we take a general look at the Texas economy we again find that the state continues on a near-boom level and remains among the top four states registering the best increases in gross product. The curve of population increase remains steady at about 25% per decade, tourism and related activities continue to make an important contribution (22,584,000 visitors last year spent \$1.9 billion) and despite our weather-cursed year in agriculture Texas held a strong fourth place in agricultural exports with a total value of \$554 million (just \$1 million behind third place California). Again, however, the principal contribution to economic growth came

Texas Agriculture and Migrant Labor

from nonagricultural industry, and indications are that the momentum will continue as the Texas Industrial Commission reports increasing numbers of out-of-state industries locating here. The following chart illustrates not only the trends but the fact that in recent years they are accelerating.

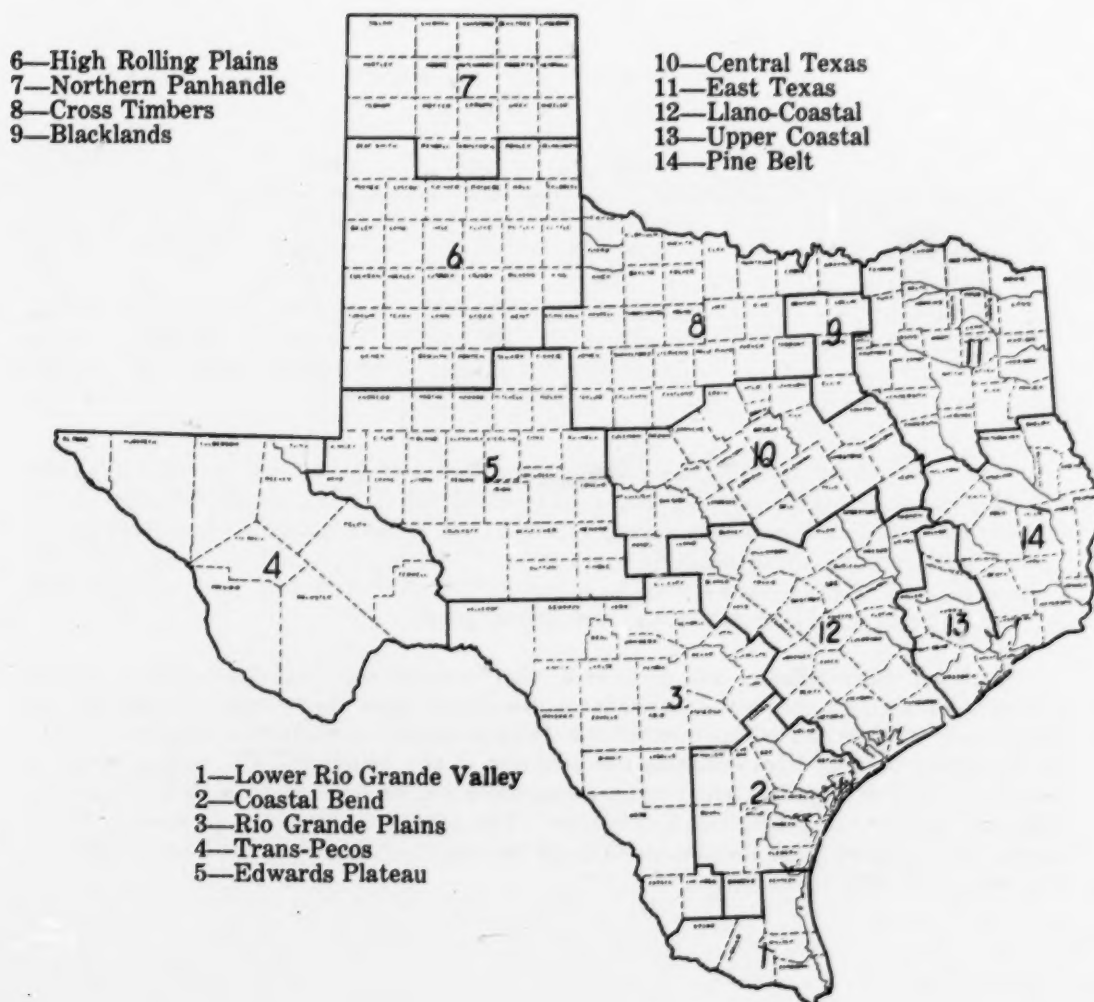
TEXAS LABOR FORCE TRENDS
(annual averages)

	1960	1965	1969	1971	% change 1960-71
Civilian Labor Force	3,600,900	3,987,600	4,610,900	4,752,400	+ 32.0
Unemployed	189,700	168,400	122,800	198,800	+ 4.8
% Unemployed	5.3	4.2	2.7	4.2	-
Total Employment	3,410,500	3,815,600	4,479,900	4,550,600	+ 33.4
Emp. in Agriculture	343,000	330,100	299,400	288,600	-15.9
Emp. in Nonagri. Ind.	3,067,500	3,485,500	4,180,500	4,262,000	+ 38.9

Total employment in 1950 was 2,960,000 and increased by 450,500 to reach the 1960 figure shown above, which in turn increased by 1,117,300 to reach the 1970 figure; an increment two-and-a-half times that of the previous decade. During this same twenty year period agricultural employment declined from 461,000 to 269,100 (from 15.5% of the total employment to 6%), which shows that farm employment has decreased both actually and relatively during an era of substantial population growth.

In recent years industry and commerce labor requirements have been able to absorb displaced or unemployed farm workers but at the present time the number of available unskilled farm workers exceeds the number of work opportunities so we have an employer's labor market which permits more screening and selection of new employees. The obvious result is that those displaced workers who remain unemployed are the least capable, with no skills to offer and in most cases functionally illiterate. This, unfortunately, is the position in which many jobless migrants find themselves; they are the ones most desperately in need of help and the ones most difficult to help.

Texas Agricultural Zones



TEXAS INTER-AGENCY TASK FORCE ON MIGRANT LABOR

Last year we reported on how the Texas Inter-Agency Task Force on Migrant Labor came about. At this time we would like to make a brief review of the material previously presented and then, as an add-on, inform and comment on what has occurred as a result of the task force's effort and the dissemination of the advisory committee's conclusions and recommendations as published in the special report prepared by this Commission for Governor Preston Smith.

The inferior position of the Texas migrant farm worker, in all of the basic aspects of life, has for many years been of concern but it has only been in recent years that this concern has been transformed into concerned action. During this last decade the real plight of the migrant began to make itself manifest and it quickly became obvious that, facts being what they were, the problem was not one possible of self-rectification, nor would it simply "go away" — help was needed. Strange as it may seem though, the migrants were not aware that they had a problem (other than deprivation, which to them was unavoidable) or that they themselves were a problem; after all was not their actual situation as it had always been? They did not seem to realize that by standing still they were in reality falling farther behind, nor could they foresee that within a few years mechanization and technology would irreversibly alter their life pattern.

Fortunately, and this is written in all sincerity, some government programs began to emerge that were designed to alleviate the problems and rectify the inequities that have been endemic to these people for generations. The Department of Labor established a migrant department in its Manpower Administration, the Office of Economic Opportunity formed a migrant division to guide and oversee assistance to migrants and seasonally employed farm workers under the Title III-B antipoverty programs and the Community Actions Projects. The Department of H.E.W. organized migrant oriented subdivisions in each of its three branches and, as we will see later on in a separate chapter, the Department of Agriculture has now gone all out in aid to housing for the rural poor through its Farmers Home Administration programs. At the state level on-going agency programs were modified or expanded to include special services to the migrant while at the same time private and foundation sponsored programs were being formulated to combat problems in the same areas of need.

There are several things that all of these programs had in common besides the common goal of assistance to the needy and the disadvantaged. Among them were a lack of precedents for guidance, little understanding of the people to be served, no source of staff expertise or experience, language barrier, etc. Perforce much experimentation was necessary. It is understandable therefore, that with numerous programs with the same basic aim and beamed at the same target group, overlap and duplication would be virtually impossible to avoid. There would be instances of competition instead of cooperation between different agencies (also between different private groups and organizations) which proved to be costly in time and effort. There is no reason to doubt the good intentions of the program directors but the facts were indisputable, few were actually realizing the goals set forth in their respective proposals.

Inter-Agency Task Force

The circumstance of low accomplishment, coupled with the fact that most agencies and groups were unaware of what each other was doing, pointed up the urgent need for closer program coordination. Until now no study group, agency or appointed committee had been assigned the task of program cataloging and evaluation, and the time was well due to ascertain the present status of services to migrants and to determine just how comprehensive they are. Governor Smith's realization of this situation brought forth an executive order in August of 1970 asking this Commission to form a working task force composed of heads of agencies with migrant or related programs. The task force was to "catalog migrant needs, make an inventory of all on-going federal and state migrant programs and develop a state plan to bring into focus all resources at hand to produce some immediate as well as long range solutions to the Texas migrant problem." This meant; "what" are we doing, "how" are we doing it and "where" are we going.

The task force held two orientation meetings and unanimously adopted the "advisory committee" approach as the quickest and most feasible means of gathering the information required to comply with the executive mandate. The participating agencies suggested names for the committee make-up which were added to those taken from this Commission's files, then a letter of explanation plus a meeting invitation were mailed or hand delivered to a list of one hundred persons. The large size of the committee was necessary so as to include representation from all of the sectors of our society that could be expected to make meaningful contributions toward our knowledge of migrant matters. Thus it was that the committee members were drawn from the city and the country, from the Panhandle to the Lower Valley; there were migrants and crew leaders, there were growers and employers; health and welfare were represented as were education and housing; the clergy and organized labor were present and so were various program directors. The potential committee members, so as to come prepared, were informed that the "workshop" concept of informal communication would be used and that the topics to be considered would be Housing; Education; Health & Welfare; Employment and Community Resources. A moderator and a recorder were appointed from among the participants in each workshop and at the closing general session each group reported its findings and conclusions. These results were reviewed (treating each workshop separately) and compiled and then a conglomerate summary of conclusions and recommendations was written. This material, which was to become an integral part of the final report, underwent no editing except for the sake of clarity and continuity.

The advisory committee's conclusions and recommendations were grouped under two headings; those requiring legislative action and those requiring administrative action. Following the final assemblage of material, but before the final draft was written, a last task force meeting was called for the purpose of approving the Table of Contents and setting a target date for the presentation of the finished report to the Governor. Then, since the Inter-Agency Task Force was of an ad hoc nature formed for the completion of a specific order, the nine participating agency heads concurred on a job well done and agreed (within the framework of their respective agencies) to strive for the realization of the stated recommendations and with that the task force went into limbo. But not for long.

Governor Smith, after perusal of the finished report, ordered it printed for general distribution and among those receiving copies were members of the legislature and the citizen members of the advisory committee. Little time elapsed before the Good Neighbor Commission

Inter-Agency Task Force

began receiving calls and inquiries concerning the report and its content and it quickly became evident that the task force should be informed of the growing interest being shown by people other than agency personnel. This resulted in a meeting being called for early July of 1971 at which time the task force came to the conclusion that it should continue to meet periodically in order to keep itself current on developments in migrant matters. At this gathering our Commission's executive director suggested that he prepare a draft terms of reference for their comment, based on the possibility that the task force might be asked to continue its efforts in the area of migrant affairs. Following considerable discussion of the merits of such a move the concensus was affirmative and the draft procedure was prepared. The new objectives of a permanent Inter-Agency Task Force were outlined as follows:

To provide a framework for participating agencies to work together in defining and solving shared problems.

To document the need for additional or revised state and federal legislation.

To advise and cooperate with the Commission in the preparation of its reports to the Governor and the Legislature.

To share information on significant programs not arising from nor cleared through state agencies.

Further, it was suggested that each participating agency designate a permanent representative so as to insure continuity and that the task force meet at least quarterly. At a later date this last part was modified to read, "hold intermittent meetings subject to call when matters of significance arise that require joint action".

The first meeting, under this new procedure, was called in response to a September letter of inquiry from the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) requesting to be informed of the present status of the recommendations contained in the special report of the task force. This meeting produced the following responses from the members concerning the points in question:

- 1) Establish a housing standards law covering labor camps and on-farm labor housing which will empower the State Health Department with authority to enter and inspect. (This was accomplished by the passage during the 62nd Texas Legislature of HB-1254, Lauro Cruz, which set forth minimum standards for labor housing, provisions for inspection, licensing and enforcement under authority of the Health Department.)
- 2) Amend the Labor Agency Law to require private recruiting agencies to show proof that the housing offered by their clients meets federal standards before licensing such private recruiters. (The representative of the Bureau of Labor Statistics present stated that the law governing his agency does not specify that housing for recruited migrant farm workers must meet federal standards. It would require legislation to give B.L.S. the authority, and so far no legislation has been introduced to amend present law.)

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- 3) Establish a State Housing Authority to regulate and expedite farm labor housing, or add this authority to an existing agency.
(The newly formed Department of Community Affairs — brought into being by the 62nd Legislature — contains a housing division. Under order from the Governor a statewide housing survey is being conducted as a basis for future recommendations.)
- 4) Establish a migrant information center.
(The Good Neighbor Commission publishes an annual report on migrant matters which contains program information from federal and state agencies involved with migrants. For all practical purposes, the GNC is the "information center".)
- 5) Establish within the framework of state government a loan program similar to the Veteran's Land Board for the sole purpose of improving housing for farm workers and improving the "barrios".
(The director of the Department of Community Affairs stated that a bill to make state funds available for low income housing assistance was introduced in the last legislature as SB-385 but it did not pass. There is certain assurance that a similar bill will be introduced at the next regular session.)
- 6) Expand the migrant health concept in the State Health Department in coordination with other agencies such as Welfare and the T.E.A.
(The representative from Health indicated that funds for migrant clinics came from federal sources and that at the moment no additional funds had been appropriated. He indicated, however, that there was no lack of purposeful intention as several proposals had been received and approved by the department but that they remain pending until funds are forthcoming.)
- 7) To provide free tuition in Texas institutions of higher learning for qualified migrant students.
(The observation was made that many sources for scholarship funds are available to persons in low income brackets and that, in reality, a scholarship is much more important to the student than free tuition. It was suggested that scholarship information should be more generally disseminated through the Coordinating Board of Higher Education.)
- 8) Modify the requirements of teacher certification for teachers destined for work in bilingual education careers.
(It was stated that the only institutions offering bilingual education courses as a major for certification credit are Texas A & I, Pan American University and the University of Texas, Austin. It was further stated that it would take legislative action to modify the rules governing teacher certification. However, the task force whole-heartedly recommended that the several Mexican American organizations encourage the youth of their groups to enter the field as it offers a good career potential and an excellent opportunity to serve.)

Texas Inter-Agency Task Force

- 9) Explore the need for closer coordination between state agencies and non-governmental groups.
(Closer coordination between state agencies and other groups is answered, in effect, by the very existence of the Task Force and its role. This was brought out by the GNC draft procedure, as discussed previously, and recommends that the Task Force be continued on a permanent basis.)
- 10) Explore the possibility of establishing "half-way house" counselling for migrants who have been relocated in new jobs.
(In this respect the Texas Employment Commission is most directly involved as it assists, not only in the relocation, but in the job procurement and maintenance so that the "settle out" family has a better chance of making the readjustment. This, of course, involves other states and their agencies in the settle-out areas which precludes the possibility of Texas doing other than counselling and assistance while the migrants are at home here.)

At the same meeting the Department of Community Affairs was invited to join the Task Force and the invitation was accepted. This not only brought in another agency interested in migrant affairs but brings the Task Force into closer contact with the Governor's office. At the time of adjournment it was again expressed that the Task Force should remain intact as a continuing coordinating mechanism for migrant matters and to act as a clearing house for information relative to these matters. The Good Neighbor Commission was charged with pursuing this with the Executive Department.

THE ROLE OF THE CHURCH IN MIGRANT MATTERS

This topic seems to be not unlike the migrants themselves as expressed in our Overview. The role of the Church is virtually invisible and for the most part ignored, taken for granted or misunderstood; however, a study of this role and its impact is both relevant and timely. Since this agency became involved in migrant matters, beginning with FY-1966, we have many times sat with ecclesiastical people at meetings and on panels concerned with the disadvantaged and the needy. It was during these occasions of opinion interchange and review that the many and varied Church activities became somewhat more "visible" to us as concerns their direction and intent. And, since we are certain that few who read this report have been afforded the opportunity of seeing the Church's work in action, we decided to research the matter and pass along our findings. It should be clarified at this time that this coverage is by no means complete, we do not profess to have contacted or interviewed all denominations and ecumenical groups; limitations of time and staff just would not permit. If we have, therefore, overlooked any work or effort it has been unintentional and we enthusiastically invite any and all who have additional information concerning this subject to inform us in detail so as to make our files more complete and increase their reference value.

Some background should prove of value in explaining the linkage between the people we are dealing with (the migrants and the Spanish speaking), and their religion and their present situation. It has been a fact throughout history that religion always accompanies explorers and settlers in new lands. It is a further fact that seldom, if ever, is the imported faith compatible with indigenous belief. This truism has been a catalyst for confrontation and conflict since history began, yet even today religion continues to be exported and the pressure to increase the number of faithful continues unrelenting. Following in the path of conquest blazed by Hernan Cortez, Catholic priests and friars were landing on the shores of New Spain (Mexico) some years before Protestant pilgrims began landing at Plymouth Rock. The Catholic missionaries worked diligently and well, so well in fact that their reports sent back to Spain on the number of native conversions and baptisms were almost unbelievable. However, despite Catholicism's apparent success among the conquered peoples one very important fact was missing; colonization. This was particularly true in the inhospitable northern part of the country. This lack of follow-through by the Spanish after the conquest was to prove not only disastrous for them in this new land but would eventually leave a legacy of unprepared and unprotected people. The centuries old feudal system of Spain was introduced into New Spain by simply rewarding royal favorites or repaying royal debts with huge land grants with few if any strings attached. Haciendas were built, complete with a casa grande, chapel and servant's quarters, and the land was worked by the Indians and a new mestizo class. The workers, or peons, were taken care of and protected by the "amo" of the hacienda and thus their existence was a sort of benevolent slavery. So, as in the mother country, the "amo" perpetuated himself by using the tools of ignorance, oppression and religion and we are today being confronted with the results of that once acceptable social system.

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Meantime the Protestant ranks in New England were increasing dramatically, however not by conversions of the natives but by mass immigration from Europe. Thus it was, that long before northern Mexico became Texas the indigenous population, mostly mestizos, was solidly Catholic whereas the settlers pushing west from the Colonies were mostly Protestant immigrants bent more on colonizing than on converting. Contrary to what one might think, religious belief never became a motive for conflict in this vast new area but nevertheless a pattern began to emerge which was to result in an unintentional social and economic stratification along religious lines but not based on differences in belief. The Catholic Mexican, who became American by virtue of a treaty, preserved his language and religious faith but found no improvement in his economic and social position. Actually, the former Mexican's inferior status began to further erode while simultaneously the predominately Protestant in-migrating Americans from the East became increasingly more dominant in all fields. Hence, from the foregoing, we submit that the present situation of the Mexican Americans in Texas is not so much an outgrowth of religious action or inaction as it is a result of political and social strategies; feudal status quo as compared with aggressive colonization.

This situation endured, indeed it became more intensified, until after the first quarter of this century when the first stirrings of an awakening social consciousness began to make itself felt. We became conscious of our fellow man. Nowhere was this awakening more timely than in the Southwest and particularly in South Texas. Prior to this the Spanish speaking minority had continued its ecclesiastic practices in its own language while the Protestant denominations continued their teachings in English with almost no Spanish surname membership and absolutely no Spanish speaking congregations.

It is said that change comes about very slowly in the church, that the church is generally behind the times. This is understandable since the doctrines and practices of the principal religions are rooted in time tested beliefs, not to be modified or tampered with unless given due consideration. Thus the use of the word awakening. The religions did not change, rather the churches became aware that their ministries were failing, that they were not serving as they were intended to. For several centuries the missions concept of conversion and spiritual guidance to the unenlightened was what motivated the church's teaching efforts but now there was need for a new evaluation and a new approach. Almost without exception, this "new look" in the responsible application of religion in today's world has come from the church's missionary division; "Our greatest mission is right here at home" was the rallying phrase. But how was the church to implement this new approach? The mechanism most generally applied is to use specially trained missionary staff to investigate and to suggest plans and strategy and also assist in fund raising. In this way the whole church can participate in policy making and funding while the actual field work of the ministry is being done by persons acquainted with the language and culture of their constituency.

Later, as permanent pastorates were established in South Texas and the border regions, as Spanish speaking congregations formed and as more Mexican Americans embraced theological careers, it became increasingly more obvious that this missions effort should not be merely a drive for membership but should also incorporate a church concern with the many unfilled socio/physical needs of these people. Thus it is today that almost all church endeavor

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and planning contains a humanity services component which is of equal importance to this ministry as is the attention to spiritual needs.

The role ("a part taken or assumed by anyone") of the Church is definitely in a state of transition. The definition of the word remains the same but the Church's commitment has greatly increased, the scope of its interests is more extensive and it is exploring for solutions. The Church is listening and then involving those who speak out in designing the programs for human development through self-determination, thus taking an active part in directing their own destinies. It is a doing 'with' approach as compared with doing 'for'. This attitude is by no means exclusive with the Church, actually it is parallel thinking with the changed national attitude toward the poor and the theory of equal opportunity and equal access to the means and resources for self improvement. We think that this approach is best illustrated in the many new areas of concern being brought to the surface at the community center level by members of the target population. Here follows a brief sketch of the endeavors of a few denominations with whom this Commission has had contact while in the pursuit of its own efforts in the area of migrant services.

Doubtless the church with the longest record of service to the Mexican American and the migrant, and the one currently with the heaviest case load, is the ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. Here we refer in particular to the Brownsville and San Antonio dioceses. The educational programs of the Catholic church are well known (from kinder through university and seminary) as well as the health programs (local clinics and area hospitals). Less well known are the church's efforts in the area of Day Care, preschool and bilingual training, in vocational and home arts training and in the field of low rent permanent housing projects.

The Brownsville Diocese, through its Division of Catholic Charities, has established two family health clinics under the direction of a health coordinator, to serve the Lower Valley "campesinos" (people who depend on seasonal farm work for their livelihood, including migrants) with diagnosis, treatment and referral. There is also a church maintained emergency relief fund used to assist needy "campesinos" with cash. There are two housing projects of 100 units each, consisting of duplex and single family units, that are available to anyone who meets the low income criteria; this is of particular significance for the working poor. In addition the diocese maintains a nursing home and a home for girls.

The San Antonio Archdiocese, in addition to its long established health and educational facilities, operates the Guadalupe Community Center which offers a packet of social services geared to the needs of the entire family. The Day Care program for the care and education of children of working parents is the Center's principal program. Another similarly oriented service point with almost parallel programs is the Madonna Neighborhood Center. The archdiocese is singularly proud of having as a member of the resident staff, the first Mexican American to attain the rank of bishop. Noteworthy have been his efforts in the founding of P.A.D.R.E.S. (which we will discuss later) and in the establishment of the Commission for Mexican American Affairs within the social apostolate as a service oriented office for the welfare of this ethnic group which at present makes up about 40% of San Antonio's population.

The Role of the Church

The states of Texas and New Mexico form the Rio Grande Conference sponsored by the Board of Missions of the UNITED METHODIST CHURCH. This is the church's only Spanish speaking conference in the entire nation and consists of four districts with ordained supervisors in McAllen, San Antonio, Lubbock and El Paso. The conference consists of 18,000 members formed into 118 Spanish speaking congregations, all of which offer a variety of community services coordinated by a program director attached to the Board of Missions' office in San Antonio. The church's two most important programs are both child oriented; Day Care and preschool. Aiding preschool Spanish speaking children to prepare for public school experience is carried on in conjunction with forty different kindergartens. This program, which is being continually expanded, uses guidelines from the Texas Education Agency so as to assure a smooth entry into regular school classes. In the area of secondary schooling the church is justly proud of the Lydia Patterson Institute in El Paso that ministers mainly to Mexican Americans in a new, modern facility. Located in this same city is the Newark Maternity Clinic for the benefit of the economically deprived.

Looking at the community aspect of the church's ministry we mention the social community centers sponsored by the National Board of Missions based in New York. In Texas there are twelve such centers administered by a local board and a salaried director to carry out the board's directives and programs. Although the national board sets the general policy of "ministry to the community" and supplies a substantial part of the funding, local policy is an outgrowth of each community's needs as determined by the local board. One of the outstanding centers in the entire country is the Wesley Community Center in San Antonio which is unique in that it not only provides its own services but also provides space and assistance to other social agencies who are thus able to bring their specialized services to the community.

Perhaps the protestant church with the most extensive and varied activities reaching the Mexican American population in Texas is the BAPTIST General Convention of Texas working through its Latin-American Evangelism Division with offices in Dallas. Considering the total field, evangelistic programs are being carried on in 527 congregations and preaching points throughout the state with a combined membership of nearly 40,000. The pastorates in the agricultural work areas have for many years conducted seasonal programs of special activities during the months of migrant labor influx. Religious services are offered in the labor camps and transportation is furnished so workers and their families can use the recreational fellowship facilities at the area churches. Contact is then maintained by using a follow-up and referral system to promote the continuance of service and instruction when the migrants have returned to their home base. This is in accordance with basic missionary practices whose goal is the delivery of the Lord's word to those who have not known it.

In recent years, however, the church has greatly expanded its missions ministry with special attention being focused on the area adjacent to the Rio Grande where the concentration of Spanish speaking is the greatest and whose deprivation is greatest. This concern was the product of various surveys made during the early '60s by the Missions Commission and the Women's Missionary Union and resulted in the establishment of the Rio Grande River Ministry which came into being January 1, 1968. This River Ministry got off to an unex-

pectedly good start by an irony of fate. Just three months previous the Lower Valley had been visited by hurricane Beulah which left devastation and suffering over a vast area. Over 5,000 volunteers came from upstate churches to help in restoration and aid programs, and when they returned to their own congregations they did a better job of selling the need for the River Ministry than could have been done with a million pamphlets.

The main thrust of this new ministry was to find realistic solutions to problems peculiar to the region by direct involvement in the different areas of concern brought out by the surveys. The church's approach was to identify these areas, design the remedial programs and then bring into action the resources of the entire church. This was done by creating a group of separate, but related, efforts within the River Ministry under the following general headings:

- A. General Ministry toward human needs. This involves the already functioning chain of field missionaries and includes
 - 1) Christian teachings and witnessing.
 - 2) Recreational and social guidance.
 - 3) Evangelism as related to self and service.
- B. Health Program. This initial work, using all volunteer professional people, was to be the precursor of the rest of the River Ministry programs and involved
 - 1) Year around medical centers for diagnosis and treatment.
 - 2) Use of mobile medical clinics (five) including dental care.
 - 3) Instructional classes in hygiene, nutrition and sanitation.
- C. Construction Teams. Giving of their time and promoting
 - 1) Cooperation in building churches and community facilities.
 - 2) Self-Help on improving individual housing.
- D. Educational Programs offering
 - 1) Adult education in both Spanish and English.
 - 2) Preschool and Kinder (bilingual).
 - 3) Vacation bible schools.
 - 4) 115 scholarships for higher education worth \$500 each.

In addition there is the home Handicrafts program supervised by experienced lay members for the production and sale of home made goods. There is the agriculture advisory program conducted by church agronomists to bring modern ideas of land use to the rural river people who live on and by the land. Then there is the organization of the Christian Summer Youth Workers who volunteer for hard work and a chance to learn the role of a youth missionary by helping others.

Many of the Rio Grande congregations are poor and so receive help from the General Convention or are "adopted" by a larger upstate congregation who helps sponsor their programs through funds and volunteer professional contributions of time and skill. This is one reason why the Ministry is so dynamic—the report of the returning volunteer is the catalyst for others getting involved. Then too, the intensity of the effort in the Rio Grande area soon ex-

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posed the fact that there were many needy on the other side of the river in Mexico. Now the same concept of "sister congregations" has been expanded permitting general ministry cooperation and aid with the "Bautista" church of Mexico under the sponsorship of Texas congregations. The whole Rio Grande region is in need of help and we are sure that this Baptist effort will continue to widen its scope of ministry and service.

The West Texas Diocese of the EPISCOPAL CHURCH, located in San Antonio, does not have an operational migrant ministry; however, it has participated in interdenominational programs beamed at the Mexican Americans for nearly twenty years and is presently an active member of the Texas Conference of Churches. The Episcopal sponsored Good Samaritan Center in San Antonio is one of the most extensive neighborhood centers we know of serving the Spanish speaking people. The center offers health care, educational programs (child and adult), outreach case workers, job counseling, thrift shop, etc., and also sponsors two Boy Scout troops.

St. Paul's Episcopal, located in a barrio of Brownsville, is an outstanding example of flexibility of services in a needy neighborhood. The congregation is 95% Mexican American and has developed its own personalized ministry to meet its own needs under the direction of a bilingual Anglo minister and volunteer staff. They offer an educational program of regular classes from preschool through the sixth grade and then during the summer remedial classes are offered for those students who need to catch up. Besides free school lunches they have a food supplement program for school attending children and nutritional-hygiene classes for the mothers. Being unable to maintain a full-time clinic this church has a very unique approach to health matters. Three times a year the parish hall is converted into a clinic and bilingual notices are delivered door to door (whether church member or not) announcing that the city/county health people are scheduled to be present to help everyone in the parish with their health problems by diagnosis and referral.

The Texas District of the LUTHERAN CHURCH, with administrative offices in Austin, is a member of the Board of Directors of the Texas Conference of Churches and active in its ministry to the Spanish speaking. In the area of South Texas the church has nine full-time ministries among the Mexican Americans offering spiritual guidance and educational programs in both English and Spanish. Although final approval and funding rests with the Austin office, the individual ministers enjoy quite a liberal autonomy in designing and administering programs for their respective congregations based on local conditions and the needs of their parishioners.

The Texas synods of the UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH have no clearly defined programs or a separate ministry for the Spanish speaking, however in recent years they have established a department for interdenominational liaison called the Hispanic-American Ministries. The office of this department is located in San Antonio and the director is active in a variety of Mexican American oriented community programs. Further, he is the advisor to the House of Neighborly Service, a community aid center for the needy similar to those already mentioned, that has been in operation since 1920. With the exception of the Delta-El Divino Salvador parish in El Paso, this church has no Spanish speaking congregations in the state.

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The churches of this parish, however, have maintained welfare aid, educational and recreational programs for over two decades. The Presbyterian church is a charter member of the Texas Conference of Churches and its synod officers have served on the board as well as the advisory committee of the T.C.C.

In addition to those churches covered above, we want to mention the Assembly of God Church (Asemblea de Dios), the Pentecostal Church and Jehovah's Witnesses as having numerous Spanish speaking congregations in areas of high Mexican American concentration. Also, the Church of Christ has a full time, year around ordained missionary in the Lower Valley for the purpose of service and research.

TEXAS CONFERENCE OF CHURCHES

From these brief reviews of ecumenical involvement in Mexican American ministries by some denominations, the reader will likely conclude that there is a very real need for coordination between the various religious service organizations to avoid overlapping, duplicity or even competition which might reduce the effectiveness of their programs on the target population. This, we think has been achieved in the body of the recently constituted Texas Conference of Churches which came into being in February of 1969. This Conference, which is said to be the most widely representative interchurch organization in existence, resulted from the restructuring of a somewhat similar organization called the Texas Council of Churches which, after sixteen years of existence, was thus dissolved.

The original Council started as a ministry to serve migrant farm workers and later became the sponsor of the "Valley Ministry" which operated in the Lower Valley with a restricted membership. The Conference, on the other hand, has a broad based membership consisting of forty-two ecclesiastical units or judicatories drawn from fifteen different participating denominations. To this group of practicing church people are added ten elected lay persons to form the fifty-two member board of directors which is the governing body of the Conference. Administration and interdenominational liaison is handled by a salaried executive director and his staff in offices located in Austin.

As was said by one of the original signators, the Conference is an organizational mechanism to stress "the importance of what we all have in common, rather than what divides us." Thus it is not surprising that among the constitutional commitments of the Conference is that of being "concerned with the entire community." This is reflected in the work of the Valley Service Project which is an expanded and redirected effort to replace the somewhat ineffectual Valley Ministry. This project uses its Lower Valley office and its staff experience to assist other agencies, to make referrals, to act as arbitrator between growers and farm workers and to act as a solutions instigator in problem areas. Entering its third year, the Conference seems to be firmly established and well oriented in its goals and hopefully it will prove to be the coordinating instrument that has so long been lacking in the ecumenical ministry for the migrants and the Spanish speaking.

The Role of the Church

P.A.D.R.E.S.

Padres Asociados para Derechos Religiosos, Educativos y Sociales is a corporate association of Catholic priests committed to fostering the "human development of Mexican Americans in the United States," particularly the impoverished and disadvantaged. Development is fostered in all aspects of life (socio-economic-spiritual) which will enable this ethnic minority to "participate more fully in the benefits most Americans already enjoy." Another way the padres put it, is to "generate spiritual and material empowerment."

P.A.D.R.E.S. was founded by a group of Mexican American priests, both secular and religious, who shared their barrio ministry and also shared their concern with the Mexican American poor. By the Fall of 1969 the embryo of an idea was beginning to take shape and by February of 1970 the first formal organizational meeting was held. This meeting was implemented by a grant, and encouragement, from the National Conference of Catholic Bishops. The format drawn up by the group permits Anglo priests, who share the padres' goals to join the organization and become active in the ministry to the Mexican American poor. Interestingly enough, liaison between interested Protestants and the padres is maintained by the office of the Hispanic-American Institute in Austin which, incidentally, is a board member of the Texas Conference of Churches.

Although still in the formative stage and still explaining their plans and goals to all who will listen, the padres have been riding a wave of genuine enthusiasm that seems to be contagious to others with similar concerns. The principal concern of P.A.D.R.E.S. is to involve the poor at the local level (they use the term "grass roots") to bring about effective changes in their total environment. To accomplish this they plan to use an innovative program called Mobile Team Ministry, which in essence is a system for passing along theory and practice from specially trained, traveling padres to diocesan or regional teams, who in turn will train local teams for local service. This "team" device is expected to be operational by Fall of 1972. The unflagging support of the San Antonio Archdiocese has been very helpful to this new organization and especially to the Executive Director who resigned as a vice president of the Texas Conference of Churches to head up P.A.D.R.E.S.

The content of this chapter leaves little doubt that a new ecumenical spirit is emerging in our time. In ministering to the Spanish speaking our churches are becoming listening partners trying to bring the plight of the neglected and overlooked to stage center and to advocate for an across-the-board campaign for human betterment within a Christian framework of Gospel teachings and service. There should be a place for all of us in this work.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN TEXAS

Bilingual Education has made dramatic forward strides since theory and idea became an operational program for the first time in Miami in 1963 as a means of meeting the emergency educational needs of the thousands of Spanish speaking Cuban children residing in the area. The following year two similar programs were instituted in Texas, one in San Antonio and the other in Laredo, which were soon to attract national attention in educational circles. Since then the same basic technique has been used to set in motion bilingual education programs in thirty-six Independent School Districts in Texas with additional ISD's working up proposals for presentation and approval, and to coordinate the overall effort it was found necessary to create a new office within the Texas Education Agency, that of International and Bilingual Education, under the direction of an assistant commissioner. By and large the general public is not very well acquainted with the program or its goals so it is our hope that in the next few pages we can trace the development and project the future of bilingual education for those who are interested in the subject.

Since ancient times bilingualism has existed as a way of life wherever countries with different languages share a common border and where there is an interchange of trade and culture. This circumstance quite naturally develops bilingual people by simple association whereas students and scholars become bilingual through the process of study — the process of learning. Being bilingual, however, does not mean that one must use two languages every day (as in a border community) but that he be prepared in both languages to understand and be understood regardless of where he is. Bilingual Education, on the other hand, is actually "teaching" in two languages and using them both as mediums of instruction for any part of the curriculum. Hence it is not a case of merely using the child's first language as a bridge to English and then phasing out the mother tongue when English proficiency is attained, rather it is preparing the child to function equally in two languages. To do this we must, in the beginning, teach the basic concepts of learning in the child's first language. Once this is accomplished, then it follows that the second language can be taught as naturally and normally as any other subject.

We are sure that there is full agreement in that a child's educational achievement should not be limited because of his race, national background or the fact that his home spoken language is other than English. However, with our present curriculum patterns and teaching techniques certain ethnic groups are unable to achieve at anywhere near the national norms. The solution then obviously lies in either changing our system of education or devising an adjunct to the system that will offer equality of education to linguistically different children. The latter choice, in the form of Bilingual Education, had to be argued and debated, the rationale had to be explained and advantages outlined, and then a wedding of lawmakers and educators was necessary. In other words, it was imperative that a law be passed to delineate this specialized field of education and then would follow funding, planning and implementation.

Bilingual Education

One of this nation's basic educational laws is the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 and its amendments, and this would be the logical vehicle to carry the Texas sponsored Bilingual Education Act which was drawn up and presented for legislative consideration and debate in mid 1967. This Act was passed by Congress on January 2, 1968 as an amendment to the ESEA and was signed into law the same day by President Johnson as Title VII of the basic law. This Public Law 90-247 states the following in its Declaration of Policy:

"In recognition of the special educational needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability in the United States, Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local education agencies to develop and carry out new and imaginative bilingual school programs designed to meet the special educational needs of children 3 to 18 years of age who have limited English-speaking ability and who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English."

It is further stated under the section on program design:

"Though the Title VII program affirms the primary importance of English, it also recognizes that a child's mother tongue which is other than English can have a beneficial effect upon his education. The mother tongue, used as a medium of instruction before the child's command of English is sufficient to carry the whole load of his education, can help prevent retardation in school performance."

Monies were authorized within the body of the Bilingual Education Act for the purpose of making grants under Title VII. Funds authorized for the first three years of this five year program were \$15 million for FY-1968 (six months), \$30 million for FY-1969 and \$40 million for FY-1970. Funds actually appropriated were not available until a year and a half after the Act became law and then in amounts far inferior to those authorized. However, even the sums appropriated were by no means expended in their entirety as planning and implementation proved to be far more difficult and exasperating than had been legislation and funding. Bilingual Education was a brand new kind of game; there were no experienced players or coaches, there was no equipment or playing field and there were no playing rules or a way to keep score. The most serious problem to getting the game started was an acute shortage of bilingual teachers and teacher aides and the lack of institutional curriculum for their training. This resulted in many local school districts, attempting to initiate class efforts as soon as possible, being forced to start with incompetent and unprepared teachers and in some cases the results were disastrous. This was the precursor of both teacher frustration at seeing little progress and realizing their own limitations and of student disinterest and apathy because of the confusion of not knowing what was expected of them or how to accomplish it. This and other "tooling up" difficulties pointed up the wisdom of reconsidering appropriations, which were then pegged at a total of \$50 million for the two remaining years of FY-1971 and FY-1972.

This Commission's principal interest in treating this subject is to place before the reader a review and a viewpoint of the Texas involvement with Bilingual Education. First it should be clarified that although there are several numerically important ethnic minorities in Texas the largest by far, comprising 20% of the state's population, is the Mexican American or Spanish speaking sector and thus all of our programs deal only with the English-Spanish language combination. At the present time Texas has approximately 2,800,000 students in school and 21% of this student population (about 575,000) consider Spanish as their first language and 50% of this group speak little or no English. These are mostly the youngsters and unless served by special programs tailored to their particular needs almost 300,000 students are doomed to educational underdevelopment.

For many years the high dropout rate and the poor academic achievement of the Mexican American children has signaled the inadequacies of the strictly English oriented system of teaching. Not only were we failing to take advantage of their mother tongue as a valuable educational tool but we were actually ignoring it; thus, not being taught anything in Spanish and being unable to learn anything in English the result was "double illiteracy." This makes glaringly apparent the error of insisting that the child "forget" his native language while at the same time not replacing it with proficiency in the language of the land. Now, it is believed, bilingual schooling presents us with a long awaited opportunity to achieve equality in education; truly a landmark both for education and for society.

Following close behind the Laredo and San Antonio experiments the Texas Education Agency in 1966 revised its school accrediting standards and principles to allow schools to operate bilingual programs on a "voluntary and experimental basis." Then in January of 1967 the T.E.A. hosted a bilingual conference, inviting representatives from other states, Puerto Rico and Guatemala, which produced the first concrete set of guidelines for Bilingual Education. This was followed in November of 1968 by the first comprehensive Statewide Design For Bilingual Education which was to bring Texas into workable coordination with the provisions of Title VII.

The State Board of Education was quick to assess the potential that this type of program offered to effect a turn-around in the chronic and ever enlarging problem of educational deficiency among our Mexican Americans. It also offered an approach to better citizenship and improved self esteem, a road to better jobs and civic participation, a promise of intercultural harmony to replace distrust and oft-times hostility. Immediately the Board set in motion the machinery of research and planning; theory had to be applied, objectives defined and goals established. In contrast, but of equal importance, barriers and stumbling blocks had to be identified, hazards faced and misconceptions dispelled. Then on the legislative side HB-103 (C. Truan) was passed in May of 1969 recognizing the fact that "English shall be the basic language of instruction in all schools", but that "the governing board of any school district may determine when instruction may be given bilingually." This cleared the way for unrestricted bilingual schooling by nullifying a Texas law that prohibits the use of any language other than English as the medium of instruction. Subsequent to that the basic statewide design was revised (June 1971) based on experience and evaluation and now serves as the framework for all program design.

Bilingual Education

In conclusion, it would be well to point out that bilingual schooling, as a bold new attempt to remedy defects in our way of educating children whose English is non-functional, is still in its infancy and being such an audacious scheme it cannot be expected to succeed overnight. The basic concepts of this program, however, are undeniable and they will prove out when today's participating student becomes tomorrow's better prepared adult. The following list of on-going projects illustrates better than anything else the Texas commitment to Bilingual Education.

TEXAS BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROJECTS FY - 1971-72

Project District	Funding Authorized	Year of Project	Grade Level	Children Participating
Abernathy	\$ 90,000	3rd	K-2	255
Abilene	125,000	1st	K-2	549
Alice	105,000	2nd	1-2	270
Austin, Region 13	156,775	3rd	1-3	657
Austin, Television	260,350	2nd	1-3	
Brownsville	150,000	1st	K	780
Colorado City	70,900	2nd	K-1	213
Corpus Christi	85,000	2nd	K-1	300
Crystal City	137,000	1st	K-2	801
Dallas	228,000	1st	K-2	1,243
Del Rio	105,000	3rd	K-3	925
Del Valle	120,000	2nd	1-7	210
Edinburg	121,500	2nd	K-4	690
Edinburg, Region 1	200,000	3rd	K-2	1,250
El Paso	156,000	2nd	K-2	960
Fort Worth	392,600	2nd	Pre-3	1,862
Galveston	92,000	2nd	Prekinder	150

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Houston	\$ 253,355	3rd	K-4 7-12	1,000
Kingsville	73,000	2nd	K-2	205
La Joya	101,700	3rd	K-4	949
Laredo	100,000	3rd	K-6	480
Laredo	120,000	3rd	1-4	869
Lubbock	111,240	3rd	Pre-1	227
McAllen	104,930	3rd	1-3	648
Orange Grove	112,000	2nd	K-2	208
Pharr	130,000	1st	K-2	1,270
Port Isabel	166,500	2nd	K-3	383
San Angelo	159,300	3rd	Pre-2	435
San Antonio (Alamo)	130,000	2nd	Pre-1	201
San Antonio (Edgewood)	223,200	3rd	1-3	1,440
San Antonio (SA ISD)	398,715	3rd	K-1 6-7 10-12	1,024
San Antonio (So. SA)	110,000	2nd	K-2	434
San Antonio (Southside)	125,000	1st	K-2	279
San Marcos	199,630	3rd	K-5	1,560
Weslaco	110,000	3rd	K-3	860
Zapata	119,000	3rd	K-4	599
	<u>\$ 5,442,695</u>			<u>24,286</u>

(36 Projects)

Source: Texas Education Agency

ALIEN LABOR AND IMMIGRATION

A. ALIEN LABOR:

Tracing the history and development of alien labor and immigration is to study two inseparable, interrelated subjects whose dependency is such that they must be considered together. The simple fact is that the labor we are interested in is "alien", meaning that it is foreign and thus comes from some place other than the United States, and the only way to get it here is by the process of immigration. The reasons for immigrating to this country have been many and varied but regardless of the motivating cause, a search for work and earnings invariably played an important role in the emigrant's decision to leave home. Prior to the 1880's, in order to keep up the flow of settlers, the policy of the U.S. government tended to encourage rather than restrict immigration as it was evident that America's growth pattern would require increasing numbers of workers to labor in the fields, in the mines and industry and to push the railroads through the wilderness. By and large the settlers came over of their own volition but the great mass of unskilled peasant workers from Western Europe were brought to this country as contract workers by labor recruiters. These early dealers in job opportunities were not always scrupulous and fair dealing, so it is not surprising that they used some common advertising and other inducements to over recruit and glut the labor market. The resulting competition for jobs would force wages down, provide the employer or labor consumer with a welcome savings and the recruiter with a bonus. It also became evident to these labor exploiters that Asia offered a source of unlimited labor that would work even cheaper than the Europeans — the importation of coolie labor from the Far East was soon to get completely out of hand.

During this period the traffic in Asian contract workers had become so intense that three-fourths of the labor in U.S. fields was being done by Chinese. This caused a public clamor because of the unbridled exploitation of workers and public alarm over the uncontrolled flood of oriental "foreigners" entering the country. Three events took place in rapid succession; 1) passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, 2) the introduction of the principle of selection to set certain qualifications for entrance and to bar the entry of "criminals, immoral persons and paupers", 3) the enactment in 1885 of the Alien Contract Labor Law to halt the importation of "cheap labor". This was the beginning in establishing statutory restrictions on immigration and controls over labor imports.

During the next twenty-five years several classes of undesirables were added to the list of excludable immigrants (including polygamists, persons with certain mental or dangerous diseases, anarchists, saboteurs, etc.) and in 1908 the principle of exclusion was extended by barring all immigration from the Orient. Thus matters remained until in response to rising resentment of unrestricted immigration during World War I Congress, in February of 1917, enacted what then became the "basic immigration law" which codified all previous restrictive measures and defined the categories of excludable aliens. This Labor Act of 1917 contained provisions for the inspection of immigrants on arrival and the return of the unlawful ones, as

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well as provisos under which contract workers and other inadmissible aliens could be admitted on a temporary basis. Also, this Act of 1917, for the first time, delineated the procedures for the importation of skilled and professional workers. Until 1921 immigration legislation was restrictive in terms of quality rather than quantity, but in that year the first quota law came into being, the Emergency Quota Act of 1921. This was followed by the Immigration Act of 1924 which introduced the "national origins" plan of immigration restriction which continued to be (although with intermittent modifications) basic to the U.S. system until 1965. This Act tended to preserve the fundamental make-up of the American stock by limiting the annual quota of any nationality to 2% of the total number of that nationality already here as counted in the census of 1890.

The next legislative act effecting alien workers was passed in April of 1943. The Chinese exclusion laws were repealed and the Chinese were brought into the quota system, as were the Filipinos and natives of India, but of more importance to Texas and the Southwest was the impact of the law's effort to overcome the wartime manpower shortage which was becoming acute. This resulted in the first arrival of Mexican nationals and some West Indians to this country for temporary employment in agriculture. The unskilled Mexican farm workers were dubbed with the names "bracero" and "nationals" which have stuck to this day. Before this special legislation expired December of 1947 Mexico began to urge the United States to enact laws which would protect the bracero from abuses and irregularities and to regulate the farm labor importation program.

While this was being negotiated, it was necessary to supply our farmers and growers with emergency field workers so our Department of Labor and the Immigration and Naturalization Service set up recruiting stations in Mexico in agreement with the Mexican government. At the same time, responding to Mexico's insistence, a commission was named to study the problems of the bracero program in conjunction with the government of Mexico and the joint efforts culminated in the enactment of Public Law-78 (Bracero Act) during July of 1951. This Bracero Program which controlled wages, working conditions and transportation for the Mexican nationals who came across the border to work in our fields, was to endure for fourteen years. However, as we see in Table I, halfway through this period (when the average yearly importation of braceros was over 400,000) the entries from Mexico began a steady decline and the program officially expired in December of 1964 when Congress declined to renew the Act. Despite the lack of a law or agreement Mexicans nevertheless continued to be admitted for temporary field work under stipulations in sections 101 and 214 of the Immigration & Nationality Act of 1952 (McCarran-Walter Act) and by Public Law 414 passed that same year.

The complete phase out of the bracero program required three years and as Table I shows there have been no entries of non-immigrants from Mexico since 1968. Although having no direct effect on our Texas farm workers or migrants it is interesting to note that during this same period the other two sources of alien field workers continue to trend; British West Indians steadily increasing while the Canadians are decreasing. Many B.W.I.'s, besides field work, have a second motive for entering the U.S., that of immigrating illegally. This is shown by the dramatic increase in deportable B.W.I.'s apprehended in recent years according to the chart on page 15 of this section.

Table I
Foreign Workers Admitted for Temporary Employment in U.S. Agriculture
By Year and Nationality

Year	Total	Mexican	B.W.I.'s	Canadians	Oriental
1948	44,916	35,345	3,671	5,900	
1951	203,640	192,000	9,040	2,600	
1954	320,737	309,033	4,704	7,000	
1957	452,205	436,049	8,171	7,300	685
1960	334,729	315,846	9,810	8,200	863
1963	209,218	186,865	12,930	8,500	923
1964	200,022	177,736	14,361	7,900	25
1965	25,871	20,284	10,917	4,670	0
1966	23,524	8,647	11,194	3,683	0
1968	13,323	0	10,723	2,600	0
1969	15,830	0	13,530	2,300	0
1970	17,474	0	15,470	2,004	0

Farm Labor Development, U.S. Department of Labor

Use of foreign contract workers remained at a low level in 1970, although reporting a 10% increase for the second year in a row. The slight increase in work favored the Canadians. Although there was more sugarcane work for the B.W.I.'s in Florida their share of total man-months of work declined because they got no work at all from the harvest of Valencia oranges as they had in previous years. The Canadians on the other hand, whose traditional work area is New England, decreased in number (11% of the total) however their share of the total work increased sharply from the year before as is shown in Table II. Concerning future needs for alien labor the USDA predicts that they will remain below the 50,000 man-months a year, which is quite a change from the 1,750,000 man-months in 1959 at the peak of the bracero program.

Table II
Estimated Man-Months of Employment of Foreign Contract Workers
Thousands of man-months

Year	Total	Mexicans	B.W.I.'s	Canadians
1965	103.6	26.5	72.0	5.1
1966	59.8	12.3	44.0	3.6
1967	57.7	7.1	46.7	3.8
1968	40.7	.0	39.1	1.6
1969	44.0	.0	42.2	1.8
1970	48.4	.0	42.6	5.8

Alien Labor and Immigration

B. IMMIGRATION:

Freedom from oppressions was the cornerstone on which our nation was built and immigrants were the building blocks, and what a variety of blocks they turned out to be. Since the time of our first national census in 1790 (when 3,250,000 people were counted) statistics reveal the nationality mosaic that is America. A review of the Immigration and Naturalization Service's records, starting back in 1820, will prove that in the USA there is literally "someone from everywhere", and they still keep on coming. At the time of the early Colonies immigration was openly encouraged and newcomers were welcomed to participate in the country's expansion. This attitude was to endure for a hundred years after the Republic was established and, with the exception of prohibiting the importation of slaves in 1808, it was not until the 1880's (as we stated in part A of this section) that the government began to legislate in this area.

The spiraling increases in percentages and in real numbers of people entering the U.S. with the intention of becoming permanent residents and citizens proved the power of phrases like "New World", "Land of Opportunity", "New Start", etc. and also proved the need for statutory controls to prevent a chaotic human inundation of this fledgling country. The urgency for legislative action is obvious when one realizes that between 1820 and 1880 (sixty years) 10 million aliens entered the country as permanent residents whereas between 1880 and 1910 (thirty years) the figure was 23 million. This alarming acceleration of new arrivals brought about the long over due quota controls of 1921, to be followed by the Immigration Act of 1924 which was to be frequently amended and modified until being replaced by a completely new act in 1952. During this period of twenty-eight years provisions were included to consider "war brides" and "GI fiancées" and to ease the entry procedure for displaced persons and refugees.

The Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 eliminated many of the racial barriers to immigration and naturalization, broadened the classes of non-quota immigrants and gave new preferences to skilled workers, parents of American citizens as well as spouses and children of permanent resident aliens. It also defined the class of non-immigrants seeking to enter only temporarily. Under this Act, however, countries of the Western Hemisphere remained free from quotas and immigration from these countries continued unrestricted for more than a decade. Then, after much and continuous debate, Congress passed a new immigration law in October of 1965 placing a numerical ceiling of 120,000 yearly (exclusive of parents, spouses and children under 21 of citizens) on the entire hemisphere with no specific quotas for individual countries, just the stipulation that no country could have more than 40,000 per year. The I&NS still operates under this law which became completely effective in 1968.

Of most interest to us, and having a direct effect on our Texas farm workers, is that section of the 1965 law which involves the Secretary of Labor in the "certification" of permanent visa applicants before the Consular Service is permitted to issue such a visa. This requirement tends to reduce, even prevent, new visas being granted to common laborers (who would be in job competition with our unskilled farm workers) since the Secretary must certify that; 1) there are not sufficient workers available for this work who are "able, willing and qualified", and 2) that the employment of such aliens will not "adversely affect" the wages or working conditions of U.S. workers similarly employed.

The Department of Labor has divided all occupations into three general groups, or "schedules", as follows:

Schedule A — Professional fields in short supply in the U.S. and which are certified in advance (physicians, engineers, chemists, etc.). No job offer or individual review by the Department of Labor is required.

Schedule B — Low skilled occupations where a U.S. labor supply exists (busboys, farm workers, cook's helpers, janitors, etc.). It is extremely rare that applicants are issued a certification.

Schedule C — Professionals not in Schedule A and semiprofessional and skilled which are generally in short supply (chefs, practical nurses, arc welders, machinists, draftsmen, etc.). No job offer is required BUT the Department of Labor will review each individual case before granting certification.

Every prospective immigrant has to fall into one of these categories and under the terms of the law he must clear three official hurdles; the Department of State (U.S. Consular Service), the Department of Justice (I&NS) and the Department of Labor (Regional Office of Certification). If certification is obtained the application is sent back to the consular office of origin where final processing may take from six months to a year, depending on the backlog of applications. For the last couple of years, however, the processing delays have become shorter as the number of pending applications continues to decrease due to a dramatic decline in Schedule B applicants. The members of this group are aware of the extremely slim chances for certification so they do not bother to apply. It is, of course, impossible to say how many of these take the illegal route to "immigrate", but as we show in part D of this section, the number apprehended in the attempt is almost unbelievable.

TABLE III

Immigrants Admitted from the Western Hemisphere, 1964-71

Year Ending June 30	Total	Canada	Mexico	Central America	Caribbean	South America
1964	143,603	38,074	32,967	11,500	29,960	31,102
1965	157,264	38,327	37,969	12,423	37,583	30,962
1966	152,819	28,358	45,163	9,658	43,804	25,836
1967	156,312	23,442	42,371	8,709	65,273	16,517
1968	249,814	27,662	43,563	10,862	145,751*	21,976
1969	156,220	18,582	44,623	9,692	59,395	23,928
1970	150,992	13,804	44,469	9,343	61,403	21,973
1971	160,733	13,128	50,103	8,626	68,176	20,700

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Table III on the previous page reveals that the total of Western Hemisphere immigration has remained steady (with the exception of 1968*) since the quota limit went into effect, however this is not the case for the different areas involved. Trends started even before the quota law have continued and it is interesting to note the shift in the percent-of-total for the three principal immigration areas.

Percentage Trends of Principal Western Hemisphere
Immigrating Areas

Year	Canada	Mexico	Caribbean	% of Total
1964	27%	23%	21%	71%
1966	19%	29%	28%	76%
1969	12%	29%	38%	79%
1970	9%	30%	40%	79%
1971	8%	31%	42%	81%

Mexico and the Caribbean have been taking up the count released by Canada as well as the decreases in Central and South American admissions. The increases in the number of immigrants from Mexico and the Caribbean receiving permanent visas are almost all from Schedule B in the category of live-in domestic servants. The Secretary of Labor can certify these applicants without violating the "able and willing" requirement since it appears that there are not sufficient citizen workers available and "willing" to be household servants so alien workers can be legally admitted to fill these jobs.

Each year something over 350,000 legal immigrants enter the U.S. and 45% of them are from the Western Hemisphere. It is natural to ask, "Who are these people, where do they go and what do they do?", and the possibility that they might displace some of us is indeed real. However, in reality the effect of these entries is less than would be expected because more than half of them are "housewives, children and others with no occupation". Table IV on the opposite page shows the number and percentages of aliens entering the different occupational categories and permits a comparison between the current year and averages for the last five years. It is readily apparent that there is little change, percentagewise, in the occupational make-up for the new immigrants from year to year.

*(This unusually high figure for the Caribbean area was the result of thousands of Cubans regulating their immigration status in accord with Public Law 89-732 which became effective in November of 1966. Over the years the majority of Cuban refugees were "paroled" into the U.S., this means that they could remain in the country but could not work or exercise a profession since they had no recognized immigration status. Thus when Congress enacted legislation to facilitate their legal immigration many were quick to apply for a permanent resident visa or for citizenship.)

Table IV
Immigrants Admitted and Major Occupation Group, Worldwide
Fiscal Years 1967-71

	Total 5 Years	%	Total 1971	%
MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP:				
Professional, Technical & kindred	225,833	11.8	48,850	13.2
Farmers and Farm Managers	14,744	0.8	1,215	0.3
Managers, Officials and Owners	34,849	1.8	6,254	1.7
Clerical, Sales & kindred	88,505	4.6	14,667	4.0
Craftsmen, Foremen	124,625	6.5	21,908	6.0
Operative & kindred	97,430	5.1	18,844	5.1
Private Household Workers	80,712	4.2	10,586	2.9
Other Service Workers	61,158	3.2	12,182	3.3
Farm Laborers and Foremen	26,314	1.4	5,479	1.5
Laborers, except farm and mine	64,850	3.4	13,137	3.6
Housewives, Children and others with no occupation	1,028,253	53.8	205,903	55.3
Unknown or not reported	62,530	3.4	11,453	3.1
	1,918,803	100.0	370,478	100.0

U.S.I.N.S.

C. COMMUTERS:

To our border population "commuter" and "commuter status" are household words, but to the rest of the nation the words, until recently, have had little significance other than the dictionary meaning of going to and from. However, since the war on poverty and the search for social equality have brought our border with Mexico under national scrutiny more is being known about this depressed area and its commuter situation. Investigations by the Subcommittee on Migratory Labor and others have proved this border area to be quite different from the rest of the nation and with problems unique unto itself. Prominent among border problems is that of the commuters or so-called "green carders" and the need for a lasting solution has focused government and public attention on this type of alien worker.

Like all immigrants, the commuter must have applied for an immigrant visa in accord with the regulations of the Immigration and Nationality Act which we discussed in the previous section. Once the alien registration receipt card, Form I-151, is issued the applicant becomes a green carder (referring to the color of the original I-151 cards) who is then

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privileged to live and work anywhere he pleases; he can be a commuter if he so chooses. He is then, as defined by the Board of Immigration Appeals, "An alien admitted to the U.S. for permanent residence and although living in a foreign country is permitted to enter the U.S. as a resident alien to work or seek work". Hence, the green carder who chooses to live over there and work over here automatically takes on commuter status. To maintain this status he must engage in work that is permanent and stable, and he is deemed to have lost this status if he is out of work for six months. However, the "permanent and stable" requirement is seldom tested so as to accommodate agricultural workers whose employment is seasonal and intermittent, yet it is this group of unskilled workers that causes so much concern for Texas and her farm workers in the border areas. Another point for concern is that although Texas has only 28% of the registered green card Mexicans (compared to California with 53%) she has HALF of the border commuters.

In reality, there is no mention of commuter status in the immigration statutes, rather it is an administrative device which was created in 1927 as an expediency. People have commuted to jobs across both of our borders since the boundaries were established so when three years after the Immigration Act of 1924 an amendment stipulated that persons from Western Hemisphere countries would henceforth be classified as immigrants and be required to obtain an immigration visa, something had to be done. Formerly commuters were considered as "temporary visitors for business" so were free to come over daily to their jobs, but the amendment changed that. Now, as an immigrant, the alien would need a visa to enter the U.S. and as a commuter he would need a visa every day. Since this was impossible the authorities devised a "border crossing ID card" to permit the continued entry of Canadian and Mexican jobholders who had for years been coming over as non-immigrants. Although there has never been any official acceptance by Congress of this commuter status "expediency", nevertheless there must be tacit approval as it has been going on for over forty years.

Each year, during the month of January, all aliens are required to register at the nearest post office in accordance with the Alien Address Regulation. The figures from the 1971 registration should be of interest. Last year 3.7 million green carders registered, of which well over a million were from our common border neighbors. There were 389,922 Canadians and 735,018 Mexicans and of these latter an unbelievable 81% are concentrated in the two states of California (388,000) and Texas (207,000). These last two figures are increases over the previous year for alien entries from Mexico, almost all of which came over as "immediate relatives" to join with family as precious few certifications were granted by the Department of Labor except to professional and technical applicants.

As is easy to understand, the total number of commuters is a constantly changing variable depending mostly on job opportunities and personal economy and the I&NS makes no attempt to maintain up-to-date statistics on them, however sample counts are taken from time to time. One such count was taken during January of 1966, another was made in December of 1967 and three recent ones were taken during 1971. We will attempt an analysis-by-comparison in order to evaluate the present day impact of the commuter program on border economy and employment.

Alien Commuter Counts
(Mexican Border)

January	1966	—	42,641
December	1967	—	40,176
March	1971	—	36,181
June	1971	—	37,295
October	1971	—	38,209

The day of the week that a commuter count is taken can have an important influence on the outcome. Counting on the day after a Mexican holiday or on Blue Monday can show a lower than usual tally. Also of importance is the season; for instance winter harvesting in Southern California creates a high hand labor demand and increases the flow of commuters. However, regardless of the variables that can influence a count, it is quite clear from the above figures that the commuter army is declining. The two main forces at work here are; 1) commuters (particularly in the building trades and industry) are moving over to the U.S. and taking up residence, and 2) attrition from loss of commuter status, as was explained on the previous page.

Table V

Percentage of Commuter Workers by Occupation Class
(entire Mexican border)

	Agri.	Sales & Service	Industry	Bldg. Trade
December 1967	42%	33%	17%	8%
October 1971	39%	28%	12%	11%
(by states for the October 1971 count)				
California	54%	26%	25%	15%
Arizona	29%	7%	5%	5%
Texas	17%	67%	70%	80%
(variation on the Texas border for the October 1971 count)				
El Paso to Presidio	66%	65%	73%	77%
Del Rio to Laredo	20%	26%	16%	14%
Roma to Brownsville	14%	9%	11%	9%

Some brief comments are in order concerning Table V. The percentage of commuters in the occupational mix for the entire border has varied but slightly in the last four years. But then look what happens when we shake out the same information separately for the three states and find that California uses three times as many agri commuters than does Texas. The question then arises; "Then why is Texas so worried about field work commuters when in reality only 17% of 39% (some 2,500) of the commuter total come over to farm jobs?" It is sim-

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ply because of competition and job displacement. At each crossing point on the Texas-Mexico border we have our own labor pool of domestic farm workers who need jobs whereas the situation is just the opposite in California and Arizona. The high farm demand areas around San Ysidro, Calexico and San Luis just do not have sufficient local labor so the commuter is necessary and welcome. The last part of Table V is included to illustrate not only that El Paso dominates the commuter flow but also how the occupational mix varies as we move down the Rio Grande.

Among other things learned from perusal of the October 1971 count are that:

- 1) 80% of all commuters are from Mexico
- 2) Participation is: 50% to Texas, 37% to California and 14% to Arizona
- 3) 67% of all commuters to Texas cross at El Paso
- 4) The ratio of farm jobs/total jobs varies from a high of 94% at San Luis, Arizona and 89% at Calexico to a low of 6% at Laredo.

With this background on commuters we think the reader will agree that the commuter program is fraught with problems and frustrations but that an over-all solution, being acceptable to all concerned, is almost impossible to design. Considering the different local and regional labor aspects and the different occupational groups involved, we frankly doubt that it all can be harmonized under one plan. It may be advisable to approach the whole matter from a "local option" point of view and allow the different border areas to devise and enforce controls and regulations, in accord with their local and seasonal needs, to prevent continued economic damage to their local, tax-paying workers who all too often find themselves displaced.

Until now a border-wide (including Canada) solution is being sought at the national level and among the suggestions and recommendations the following are prominent:

- A. Leave the present system alone but eliminate future acquisition of new commuter status. If no new immigrants are allowed to join the commuter ranks this group would gradually decrease by attrition, job loss and/or moving to the U.S.
- B. Termination of the system on a fixed date (in five years, let's say) providing adequate time to permit the commuters to establish themselves in this country and, as in A), prohibit the issuance of new commuter cards. The communities absorbing the heavy influx of permanent residents would need massive aid and assistance to prepare themselves for the population growth.
- C. Require that all commuters who acquired their status before 1965 be reprocessed for certification and continue to undergo "re"-certification periodically — every two or three years, for example. If the commuter fears flunking the recertification he may opt to take up permanent residence in the U.S.
- D. Set up the procedure for re-certification as in C) but in conjunction with a new "non-immigrant" permit and ID card, to be issued for a specific time and a specific type of work. This permit would be granted only if U.S. workers were not available. Essentially this would be a temporary work permit with no immigration tie-in.
- E. Immediate termination of the present system and let the chips fall where they may. Little serious consideration is given this suggestion as the social and economic disruptions, both personal and governmental, would be intolerable.

D. ILLEGAL ENTRANTS:

During the past year our government apprehended and expelled a total of 412,000 illegal immigrants. This amount is quadruple the number of illegal aliens that were sent home in 1965 — a mere six years ago. So we see that what for many years, was a trickle of foreigners sneaking into the U.S. has now become a veritable flood that, by all accounts, is still far from cresting much less subsiding. In this last section we would like to relate this situation to the potentially most ruinous of all border problems; the illegal entry of Mexican nationals. Unlawful crossing of the Mexican border in search of work causes problems throughout the nation but in our border states, where the flood's impact is first felt, these problems are compounded. The border area (a 1,000 mile "port of entry"), with its tenuous economic and employment balance, is particularly vulnerable to this influx because, unlike the commuter whose number is more or less static, the illegals are sharply on the increase.

Of the 412,000 expulsions (an increase of 92,000 over 1970) 348,000 were Mexicans which amounted to an incredible 84% of the world total. The following figures show with alarming clarity the trends we are facing; both numerical increase and percent-of-total increase. The lull during the mid-sixties is no more, nor is it likely to return — the storm has broken.

1964 — 42,000	1969 — 201,000	72% of total
1967 — 110,000	1970 — 277,000	80% of total
1968 — 151,700	1971 — 348,000	84% of total

The root cause for thousands of Mexicans to swarm into the U.S. is, of course, economic which is manifest in the great disparity in the standards of living in the two countries. The population explosion in Mexico (a half million youths will enter the labor market this year and not nearly that many new jobs will be created), high border area unemployment, high U.S. wages, memories of bracero earnings and just plain economic desperation are some of the motives that prompt the Mexican to jump the border. Present immigration regulations make it virtually impossible for a common laborer to enter legally and when he finds there is no solution at home for his economic crisis he logically looks north, and then he travels north. This travel pattern and its resultant effect on Mexican border cities during the last decade is shown in Table VI on the following page, with a comparison of population growth in the "twin" cities facing each other on the border.

The two most important factors that nourish this onerous situation are; the alien has nothing to lose if caught, nor does the employer who hires him before he is caught. Until something is done about this the Immigration and Naturalization Service has its work cut out for it, and on an increasing scale as we will see. The I&NS has regional administrative offices and maintains liaison with law enforcement groups and the post office department. Its own enforcement arm is known as Domestic Control which is made up of two coordinated divisions; the Border Patrol (in uniform) and Investigations (in plain clothes). The Border Patrol, operating on both borders, accounts for three fourths of the apprehensions the bulk of which is from Mexico as indicated by Table VII.

Alien Labor and Immigration

Table VI

Numerical and Percentage Population Growths in Border Cities
(1960 - 1970)

City	1960	1970	% Increase
Brownsville	48,040	52,522	9%
Matamoros	143,043	182,887	28%
McAllen	32,728	37,636	15%
Reynosa	134,869	143,514	6%
Laredo	60,678	69,024	14%
Nuevo Laredo	96,043	150,922	58%
Eagle Pass	12,094	15,364	26%
Piedras Negras	48,408	65,883	38%
El Paso	276,687	322,261	20%
Cd. Juarez	276,995	436,054	58%
Nogales, Ariz.	7,286	8,946	22%
Nogales, Son.	39,812	52,865	32%
Calexico	7,992	10,625	32%
Mexicali	281,333	390,411	38%
San Diego	573,224	696,769	22%
Tijuana	165,690	335,125	102%
Entire Border:			
United States	2,349,157	2,847,565	21%
Mexico	1,485,791	2,133,454	44%

Illegal aliens are a big headache to the U.S. from any point of view. They pay no taxes and some even manage to get on welfare. They take jobs that would normally be filled by Americans and they contribute to the dollar drain by sending a part of their earnings home. These aliens are also a big expense to the U.S. as apprehension and deportation is a costly process and for the I&NS to do an adequate and thorough job personnel and money must be forthcoming. The 1972 budget for the I&NS is \$124 million which is up \$13 million from 1971. Part of this increase will go to train and equip 140 additional patrolmen and 85 investigators. Patrolmen and investigators make up half of the Service's 7,200 employees and account for 60% of the entire budget (including \$13 million for detention and deportation). If the reader is not convinced that these are necessary, let us take a look at the change in the Border Patrol's work load.

Table VII

ILLEGAL ALIENS LOCATED BY IMMIGRATION BORDER PATROL
Selected Years Ending June 30

	1960	1966	1969	1970	1971
Deportable Aliens Located	28,966	79,610	172,391	231,116	302,517
Mexican Aliens	22,687	71,233	159,376	219,254	290,152
Canadian Aliens	4,645	6,254	9,074	7,786	7,512
All Others	1,634	2,123	3,940	4,076	4,853
Smugglers of Aliens Located	330	959	2,048	3,298	3,814
Aliens Previously Expelled	9,374	24,200	51,756	67,440	90,402

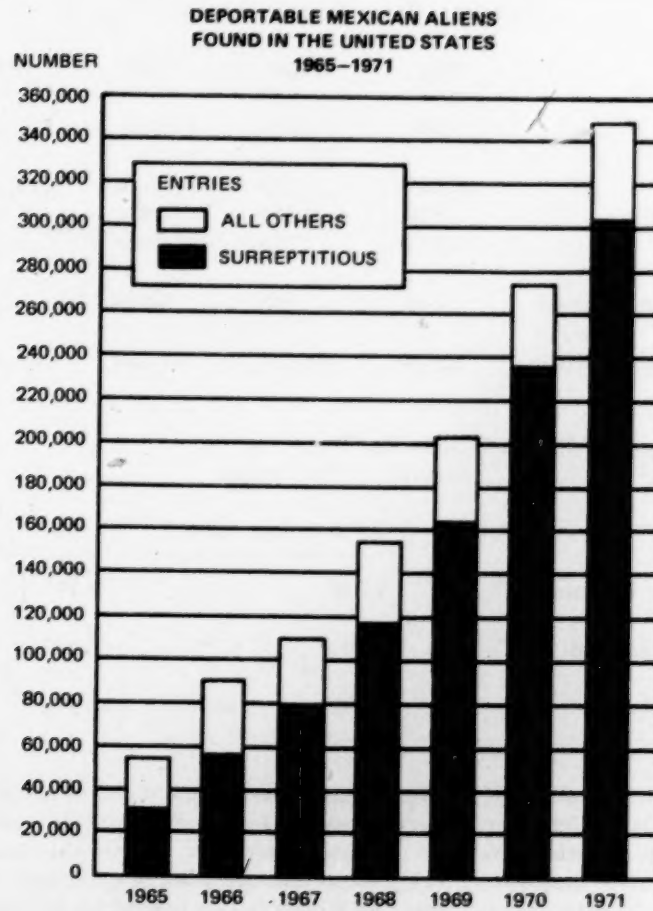
Changing Work Load of the BORDER PATROL
(figures in thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1971
Conveyances Examined	1,659	1,172	1,792	2,024
Persons Questioned	6,190	5,285	6,805	7,664
Narcotics Seizures	\$52	\$393	\$3,865	\$5,379

Referring again to Table VII the figures indicate a 960% increase in "repeaters" and a 1,150% increase in smugglers over an eleven year period since 1960. This again points up the desperateness of the situation; the alien desperately trying to get into the country one way or another and the Service desperately trying to prevent the attempt or reverse it. It also points up the fact that the increases in personnel and budget lag far behind the increase in work load. There is no way of knowing how many "wetbacks" actually make it, are not apprehended, but the law of probability states that if more try, more will succeed. So unless we are able to continue building our deterrent forces and improving our detection methods the success stories of the illegals will increase.

Smuggling aliens into the U.S. is nothing new but what is new is that it is now big business involving lots of people and lots of money. Some deals provide pick up service, transportation, housing at destination and a job guarantee and there seems to be a never ending supply of

Alien Labor and Immigration



clients. Although the risk is great smuggling continues to be an attractive and lucrative racket since fees are high and collected in advance, overhead is low and income is never reported to Uncle Sam for tax purposes. The new popularity of the rental vans and trucks has been a boon to the smuggler since he has no investment and there is less risk of a rented vehicle being traced to him than a legally registered and privately-owned vehicle.

Total Deportable Aliens from Western Hemisphere Countries

Country	1969	1970	% Dif.	1971	% Dif.
Mexican	201,636	277,377	+38	348,178	+26
Canadian	12,753	11,323	-11	10,461	-8
BWI & British Honduras	3,053	4,074	+33	9,011	+121
Dominican	2,134	2,642	+24	2,777	+5
Cuban	1,657	1,385	-16	1,330	-4
Other W. Hemis.	13,035	15,219	+17	16,707	+10

This table gives us a hemisphere look at the illegal entrants and while Canada and Cuba follow a decline trend the B.W.I.'s show an astonishing upsurge. The sudden increase is due mostly to contract laborers coming to Florida for crop work, liking what they find and not wanting to return. They jump their contract and they are apprehended, but the fact that more are caught means that more are trying which means that more are succeeding.

In conclusion, we repeat that the underlying motive for all of this struggle is economic (jobs for the aliens and cheap labor for the employer) so the first and most direct approach to stem this illegal invasion is to dry up the work prospects and thus eliminate the principal reason for entry. It is up to our government to act because the illegal traffic comes this way and the damage it causes is to our working people and to our economy. We must move, and move quickly, to enact stringent and enforceable laws to stop border abuses. Two procedures stand out and should be given priority:

1) Amend the Immigration and Nationality Act to make employers who hire illegal entrants subject to criminal prosecution. Under present law an employer cannot even be charged with "harboring" even though he knowingly hires illegal labor. He can only be charged if he actually "helps, encourages or transports illegally entering aliens"

2) Tighten the Social Security law so as to restrict membership to only citizens and "bonafide residents". This would make it difficult for employers to hire illegals and also prevent alien misuse of a card to which they have no legal right.

It is obvious that simple expulsion or deportation is not the answer when Table VII indicates that we can expect 100,000 "repeaters" this coming year. Only by adequate and timely legislation, as we have suggested, can we prevent the unscrupulous exploitation of Mexican labor and at the same time make available to our citizens and legal residents the jobs that aliens now occupy. Congress is at present considering a bill designed to restrain employers from hiring illegals by making it a misdemeanor subject to a fine and imprisonment. The fate of this bill is unknown but it is a move in the right direction and we laud this effort to correct a critical situation.

FARMERS HOME ADMINISTRATION

The Farmers Home Administration is an agency of the Department of Agriculture that was brought into being through Title V of the Housing Act of 1949. This agency has many programs in the area of supervised credit; however, we will restrict this treatment to the field of housing and its effect on our Texas migrants and other low income citizens of the state. At the present rate the Administration loans and insures loans for a total of about \$1.5 billion each year and of this the Texas share amounts to \$125 million annually, most of which is involved in housing transactions of one type or another. In the last three years the number of programs has increased and the eligibility restrictions have decreased, which is in keeping with the continued federal emphasis on Rural Development, where housing is the name of the game. The following figures involving rural housing in Texas show the impressive rate of acceleration that the recent "new strategy" is bringing about:

1969	4,100	loan	contracts	\$26,000,000	loaned
1970	4,600	"	"	38,000,000	"
1971	7,140	"	"	72,000,000	"
1972	?	"	"	100, plus ?	"

Despite the fact that FmHA loan applicants must come from rural areas or towns of less than 10,000 populations (thus guaranteeing the rural thrust of the programs) the above figures and the fact that at present there are 25,000 active loans outstanding in Texas indicates the success the Administration is having in reaching the people it is supposed to help; the needy and the financially unqualified.

The basic objective of the FmHA has always been to offer financial assistance, through the medium of insuring loans and mortgages, to provide for decent, safe and sanitary housing and related facilities for domestic farm workers. Domestic farm labor is defined as meaning persons who receive a substantial portion of their earnings as laborers on farms and who are citizens of the United States or have been legally admitted for permanent residence. Originally applications were received for processing only from families who met the following criteria:

- 1) A family without decent, safe and sanitary housing of its own.
- 2) A family unable to obtain the necessary credit from other sources.
- 3) There must be sufficient dependably available income to repay the loan, pay taxes and insurance, maintain the house and meet all other family living expenses.
- 4) Homes must be located in rural areas; this includes farms, open country and towns, rural in character, of less than 10,000

However, the general program has now been expanded to include individual farm owners, Cooperatives, trusts, associations and partnerships, as well as nonprofit corporate agencies of state and local government.

Farmers Home Administration

Paralleling the expansion of the number of client categories was the expansion of the types of housing considerations to include multiple housing, natural disaster damage needs, house repairs and additions and even programs to aid in developing subdivisions and certain terrain preparation costs. In order to give the reader a better idea of the extent and diversity of the various FmHA programs we herewith present a brief description of those presently being offered in the field of rural housing assistance.

A. Section 502: Rural Housing Loans for Individual Home Ownership.
Form 444.1

The number of loans and insured mortgages of this type made under Section 502 far exceeds the number of all other types combined. Not only is this the most frequently used means of securing a loan but it also covers the area where housing needs are greatest, namely that of adequate family housing.

PURPOSE: To provide assistance to buy, build, improve or relocate homes or farm service buildings and related facilities. To buy building sites and to install essential equipment. To foment owner occupancy. Also, to refinance debts under certain conditions when necessary to help a family retain ownership of its home.

WHO QUALIFIES: Low- and moderate-income families who are without adequate housing and related facilities and will become the owner-occupant of a home in a rural area after the loan is closed; or a farmer who is without adequate farm service buildings essential to his operation. Housing must be located in rural areas, i.e., open country, towns, villages and places with not more than 10,000 population that are rural in character.

TERMS: 7 1/4% interest for up to 33 years. Interest supplements may be made to eligible low-income families to reduce the interest rate to as low as 1%. The awarding of these supplements is based on family income, family size and size of the loan.

B. Sections 515 and 521: Rural Rental Housing and Rural Cooperative Housing.
Forms 444.5 and 444.7

This Section is designed to meet the needs of those families who, for one reason or another, do not care to be owners or do not want the responsibility of keeping up payments. In many rural areas rental "public housing" of the multiple unit type has become very popular because of the government's new rent supplement program which authorizes rent subsidy. The limits within which this program may fluctuate are: 1) low-income families will never have to pay more than 25% of their adjusted income for rent, and 2) the maximum subsidy permitted the government is 70%.

PURPOSE: To build, improve, repair or buy rental or cooperatively owned houses or apartments for independent living. Eligible occupants must be low- to moderate-income qualified families or senior citizens.

WHO QUALIFIES: Private nonprofit corporations and consumer cooperatives of broad based local membership. Individuals, partnerships and corporations.

TERMS: 7 1/4% interest for up to 50 years. Loan limit is \$750,000. Interest can be reduced to 3 1/2% through the use of an "interest agreement" and even down to as little as 1% by applying special hardship interest credits.

Farmers Home Administration

C. Section 504: Rural Housing Repair Loans (for shelter type housing).
Form 444.3

PURPOSE: To provide funds to make minor repairs, add to or improve homes and farm service buildings to make them safe and to remove health hazards to the family and the community.

WHO QUALIFIES: Very low-income owner-occupants who do not have enough income to qualify for Section 502 assistance.

TERMS: 1% interest and up to 10 years to repay. Maximum amount is \$2,500, however an additional \$1,000 may be included if it is destined for water or waste disposal systems in the home.

D. Section 502: Rural Housing Disaster Loans.
Form 444.11

This is an addition to Section 502 by authority of the Disaster Relief Act of 1970 which sets forth the procedures for making RHD loans. It applies only to natural disasters and only to major disaster areas as declared by the President through the Office of Emergency Preparedness.

PURPOSE: To provide financial assistance to replace or rehabilitate buildings destroyed or damaged by a major or natural disaster.

WHO QUALIFIES: Rural property owners and farmers who experienced a loss resulting from a natural major disaster.

TERMS: The interest rate is determined monthly, but may not exceed 6%, and up to 33 years to repay. These loans require State Office approval. The contract contains a liberal deferred payment clause as well as a cancellation or "forgiveness" clause that can amount to as much as \$2,500 under certain conditions.

E. Section 514: Farm Labor Housing Loans
Form 444.4

PURPOSE: To provide the initial and subsequent insured loans to buy, construct or repair housing and related facilities, including basic household furnishings, for use by domestic farm labor. In some cases loans are made for land acquisition.

WHO QUALIFIES: Farm owners, associations of farmers, broadly based nonprofit corporations and state or political subdivisions.

TERMS: Interest at 1% for a maximum of 33 years. Restricted to projects for fifty family units or less and development cost cannot exceed \$400,000 without prior consent of the National Office.

F. Section 516: Farm Labor Housing Grants
Form 444.6

PURPOSE: The same as that for farm labor housing loans as stated above in E.

WHO QUALIFIES: The same persons and groups as shown above in E. The applicant must provide as much as possible from his own resources then the State Office determines the amount of the grant which can run as high as 90% of the total development cost.

Farmers Home Administration

G. Sections 523 and 524: Rural Housing Site Loans.
Form 444.8

PURPOSE: To assist public or private nonprofit organizations to buy and develop building sites in rural areas to be used by low- and moderate-income families.

WHO QUALIFIES: Public or private nonprofit corporations that will sell the developed home sites to low- and moderate-income families eligible for Section 502 RH loans or to nonprofit organizations eligible for FmHA rural rental or cooperative insured mortgages as described above in B.

TERMS: Interest of 7 1/4% on two-year loans (3% on direct loans for self-help sites). Unless special consideration is requested the debt limit here is \$100,000.

H. Section 523: Self-Help Technical Assistance.
Form 444.10

PURPOSE: To provide qualified organizations with the financial assistance necessary to pay part or all of the development and administrative costs for technical and supervisory assistance programs meant to aid low- and moderate-income families in carrying out mutual self-help efforts in rural areas.

WHO QUALIFIES: Any state or political subdivision and any public or private nonprofit corporation.

TERMS: Technical assistance applicants will be funded for a two-year period by direct appropriation. The maximum expended during this period cannot exceed \$100,000.

I. Section 517: Conditional Commitments to Builders.

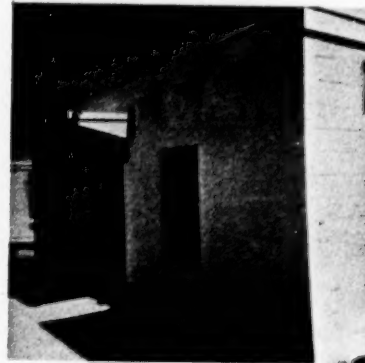
This is a program that provides assurance to a builder or seller that the homes to be constructed or rehabilitated will meet FmHA lending requirements if built as proposed and (subject to the availability of funds) that the agency would be willing to make loans to qualified applicants desiring to buy the homes. A commitment of this kind does not, however, actually reserve funds for a loan or provide financing for construction.

Although providing "adequate housing" is a singular goal of the FmHA it can be appreciated from the above that no single program can solve every housing problem, and this points up the importance of the agency's county supervisors. The FmHA's county supervisor, and there are 144 of them in the state, is the person who deals first and last with the applicant seeking assistance. He is chosen for his job because of his knowledge of the needs of his area and its people, because of the reliability of his judgment and his ability to adapt program features to the applicant's needs. In most cases his decision on loans or mortgages is final but if state office approval or consultation is necessary his role in expediting applications is essential; something the client would be unable to accomplish on his own.

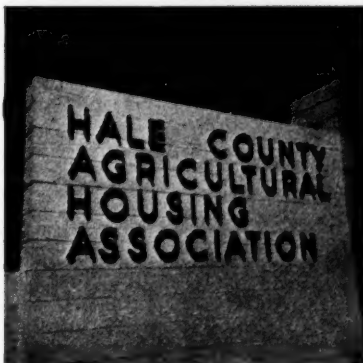
The Farmers Home Administration is answering with action the question, "Do we really want to produce low cost housing or do we just want to sit around and talk about it?", and the statistics should be proof enough that progress is being made. On the opposite page are described three multiple unit labor housing projects. In addition to these there is a new \$1,500,000 project approved for Weslaco in the Lower Valley which will provide low cost housing for local farm workers as well as for migrants when not on the stream. The target date for opening these new facilities is early Spring of 1973.



DIMMITT: (Castro County) Concrete block construction, 23 buildings for 192 families (48 two-bedroom for permanents + 144 single bedroom for migrants). Single units have connecting doors for large families. Gas stove, water heater and refrigerator. \$12 — 15 per week includes utilities. Coin-Op laundry. TEC office. Paid manager. Inaugurated January 1968.



SABINAL: (Uvalde County) Cypress City Agricultural Housing Association. Concrete block construction, 40 units (19 three-bedroom, 9 two-bedroom, 10 one-bedroom, plus two dormitories for 18 singles each). Stainless sinks, gas stove and water heater, refrigerator and utilities for \$12 — 15 per week. One third permanents. Working season eight months. Paid manager. Opened November 1969.



PLAINVIEW: (Hale County) "Date Street Housing Project". Concrete block construction, 10 building - 128 apartments, (56 units for permanents + 72 units for migrants.) Stainless sinks, gas stove and water heater, space heater and refrigerator with utilities included in the rent. Occupants formed Renter's Committee to assist paid manager. Coin-Op laundry. Day care center. Inaugurated November 1970.

Farmers Home Administration, Rural Housing Division
3910 S. General Bruce Drive
Temple, Texas 76501

CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

This section on current developments has been a part of our annual report for the past five years as we feel it is the most direct and straight forward way to update the reader on current matters concerning our Texas migrant worker and his family. This year, however, we wish to broaden our scope somewhat to cover some developments in Mexican American affairs. Discussion and comment in this area is in keeping with the intent of our report since our migrants, in ethnic make-up, are almost entirely Mexican American. As in previous years the important fields of interest to consider are education, housing, health and job development and employment.

A. EDUCATION:

Our approach this year in treating education in Texas will be different than in other reports. This agency has been present at a number of educational conferences and has been exposed to a number of "informed sources" articles and commentaries concerned with the Texas effort in the field of migrant and Spanish speaking education. The tone of these expressions has varied from caustic criticism to passing indifference, but seldom favorable. As is too often the case, the most vociferous critics are generally the least well informed as we want to review what is being done in this area of education and refute accusations that Texas is doing nothing. Then later in this section we will discuss HEW's "new look" toward education and its national and local implications.

Migrant Child Education:

The Texas Education Agency in 1962 formulated the Texas Program for the Education of Migrant Children (TPEMC) to improve the quality of education offered the children of migrants. Realizing that regular school programs would never meet the special needs of the migrant child, the T.E.A. designed a long range Texas Child Migrant Program (TCMP) to replace the original TPEMC. In 1963 the first experimental programs were launched in five independent school districts in the Lower Rio Grande Valley serving approximately 3,000 students. This child migrant program has grown from a first year budget of \$100,000 to an appropriated expenditure of \$15.6 million for the year 1971/72 spread among 119 ISD's and involving over 3,000 teachers and teacher aides.

As the chart on the following page shows, a dramatic surge in this program took place in 1965 when Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) which provided for federal participation and funding of state operated educational programs. In 1967 Title I of this Act ("Education of the Disadvantaged") was extended in scope by the Migrant Amendment to specifically include migrant children; meaning that funds would henceforth be earmarked for special programs to benefit this group of educationally deprived.

Current Developments

Texas Child Migrant Program

Year	Number of School Districts		Migrant Children Enrolled
	Six Month	Enrichment	
1963	5		3,000
1964	10		6,000
1965	20	20	20,000
1966	20	20	20,000
1967	20	25	25,000
1968	20	45	35,000
1969	20	63	40,000
1970	20	79	55,000
1971	19	90	60,000

Special child migrant programs under the Texas Plan for direct assistance to local education agencies consist of several different components and we would like to briefly describe them:

1) The PRESCHOOL PROGRAM is a concept used to prepare five-year-old migrant children for entry into the first grade. Since 1959 Texas has had a summer program for non-English speaking children but it was not until 1967/68 that the state made funds available for migrant preschool classes during the regular school year when the migrant children are home. These classes are designed to assure adequate proficiency in oral English and the development of the concept of learning. Bilingual teachers are essential to the success of this program as without exception the first language of these children is Spanish. This year two pilot programs for pre-kinder four-year-old pupils are operating in Hereford and McAllen (five classrooms each) to determine if at this age learning experience becomes viable and whether the whole program should use this lower age limit.

2) The SEVEN MONTH PROGRAM compresses into seven months a regular nine month curriculum for the benefit of migrant children whose time at home base is limited. Originally this was called the Six Month, Extended Day Program but in 1970 the number of days of classroom instruction required to conform with the Minimum Foundation was increased from 131 to 135, hence the change in title. In order to adjust to the migrant's travel calendar these classes seldom start before October 15 and never continue beyond May 15. So that these children start and end their school "year" at the same time they are grouped together in separate classrooms. This has caused criticism of de facto segregation but since student availability is the controlling factor there is no alternative and student achievement proves that the program is working.

3) The ENRICHMENT PROGRAM provides supplementary educational services to migrant children participating in the TCMP. Although circumstances may differ between

school districts they must, however, structure their programs within the framework of the following three plans:

- a) **Extended Day.** Migrant children are integrated into regular classes and participate in all school activities, then at the end of the day they attend one extra hour. Instruction should be devoted principally to oral language and conceptual development.
 - b) **Extra Service.** This is similar to the extended day in that the classes are integrated, however, the migrants who are found needing language help get it. This is accomplished by placing these students in separate classrooms for one or two periods a day where special instruction is provided by a specially trained supplementary teacher.
 - c) **Separate Migrant Classrooms.** This provides for separate and self-contained "migrant only" classrooms for general education and the instruction is designed around the non-graded concept. This plan too has been criticized as segregated as well as being too progressive since grading has been eliminated. Much follow-up evaluation is necessary here.
- 4) **The NON-GRADED PROGRAM** substitutes an "achievement level" concept for the rigid graded structure of pass or fail. Students are able to progress (achieve) at the rate their respective abilities permit, which may be different for different subjects. Thus a child may move along rapidly in certain subjects and receive more challenging material and at the same time experience difficulty with other subjects where he is allowed more time to learn without detriment to his classmates. This seems to be a logical approach as no two students are equal in any two subjects, but it places a heavy burden on the teacher as this system requires continuous evaluation to determine superior ability as well as to pin point individual achievement weaknesses. At present Texas has several of these programs, particularly among the Spanish speaking, under observation and evaluation of them will soon be forthcoming.
- 5) **ANCILLARY SERVICES** (and parent involvement) are absolutely necessary for the success of any migrant program as the needs are so severe. Economic and health deficiencies as well as the psychological effect of poverty are the root causes of most of the educational problems of the migrant child. The best known of these auxiliary programs is the free noon lunch (many schools also have a milk with sweet roll breakfast) but health and dental attention are also offered. Most communities involved in the migrant program conduct clothing drives to furnish clothing to the needy children without causing a drain on program funds. However, to be effective ancillary services must be explained to the parents which can only be done by home visitations by teachers and school visitations by parents.
- 6) **SUMMER SCHOOL** programs for didn't-migrate-this-year migrant children have had amazing acceptance. A child must have migrated sometime during the past three years to be eligible for the special educational and recreational programs. Thirty-nine of the participating school districts are sponsoring a program. The academic part of the program emphasizes oral language proficiency but also offers reading, social studies, science and math but it is quite possible that the popularity of this summer training is because arts and crafts are encouraged and because nature studies, swimming and other outdoor sports activities are a part of the program.

Current Developments

7) **TEACHERS & MATERIALS** oriented toward migrant instruction have been in short supply since the TCMP began but this situation is being corrected by the use of teacher institutes and service centers which we will refer to later. Funds and facilities are the principal ingredients of any program but here teachers and materials are the delivery mechanism on which program success or failure depends. Since gaining proficiency in English is the cornerstone of any migrant study program it is obvious that teacher training and study materials development must be based on a bilingual approach. But since the field of migrant education is relatively new there has been, until recently, little agreement as to just what disciplines should be included in the teacher training curricula, however we now have three universities offering bilingual degree courses.

The Texas Education Agency, in 1966, conducted the first Summer Institutes for Personnel in TCMP to train administrators, teachers and teacher aides and improve their competency in this specialized field. Participants in these institutes come from areas of high migrant concentration and while in attendance they receive a sustenance stipend during the 4 to 6 weeks of study courses and demonstrations. Last summer these institutes were offered at A & I University in Kingsville, Pan-American College in Edinburg, Corpus Christi University and several service centers.

Another T.E.A. innovation in teacher training, also started in 1966, is the Interstate Cooperation Project. Originally twelve destination states played host to twenty-four of our teachers from TCMP schools and the following year six additional states joined the cooperative project. For ten weeks during the summer our experienced and bilingual teachers work with the host states' education department staff to help provide schooling continuity in the work areas and to act as consultants. During this period T.E.A. pays them a salary, per diem and mileage. At the end of the summer a "reporting conference" is held in mid-August in Austin at which time our teachers share what they have learned through their interviews with employers and migrants and through their contacts with program sponsors and service people in the states they visited. Thus we continue to upgrade the calibre of our TCMP teaching staff.

Another tool for increased efficiency in the education of migrant children is the Uniform Migrant Student Record Transfer System which is a computerized record keeping system designed to make readily available the permanent record of any migrant child regardless of where he is enrolled. The central data bank is in Little Rock, Arkansas and is supported by hook-up terminals for sending and receiving that are scattered all over the country. Some consumer states will operate their terminals for only two or three months during the summer whereas supply states such as Texas, Florida and California will maintain terminal service the year round. Texas started with eleven terminals (including four in the Lower Valley) but it was soon apparent that a processing backlog was building up in this area of high migrant population so in 1971 four more terminals were added in the Lower Valley so by the time of the '72 migration most school age migrants should be on tape. This system is the culmination of a project, started in 1968, to not only keep track of the students but to assure his being placed in the proper class and to assure academic credit for his away-from-home instruction. The tape can also carry health information which often bears on the student's educational potential. Here again, as in the non-graded concept, the record carries the student's achievement level (instead of grade level) as determined by accepted standard tests.

Regional Educational Service Centers:

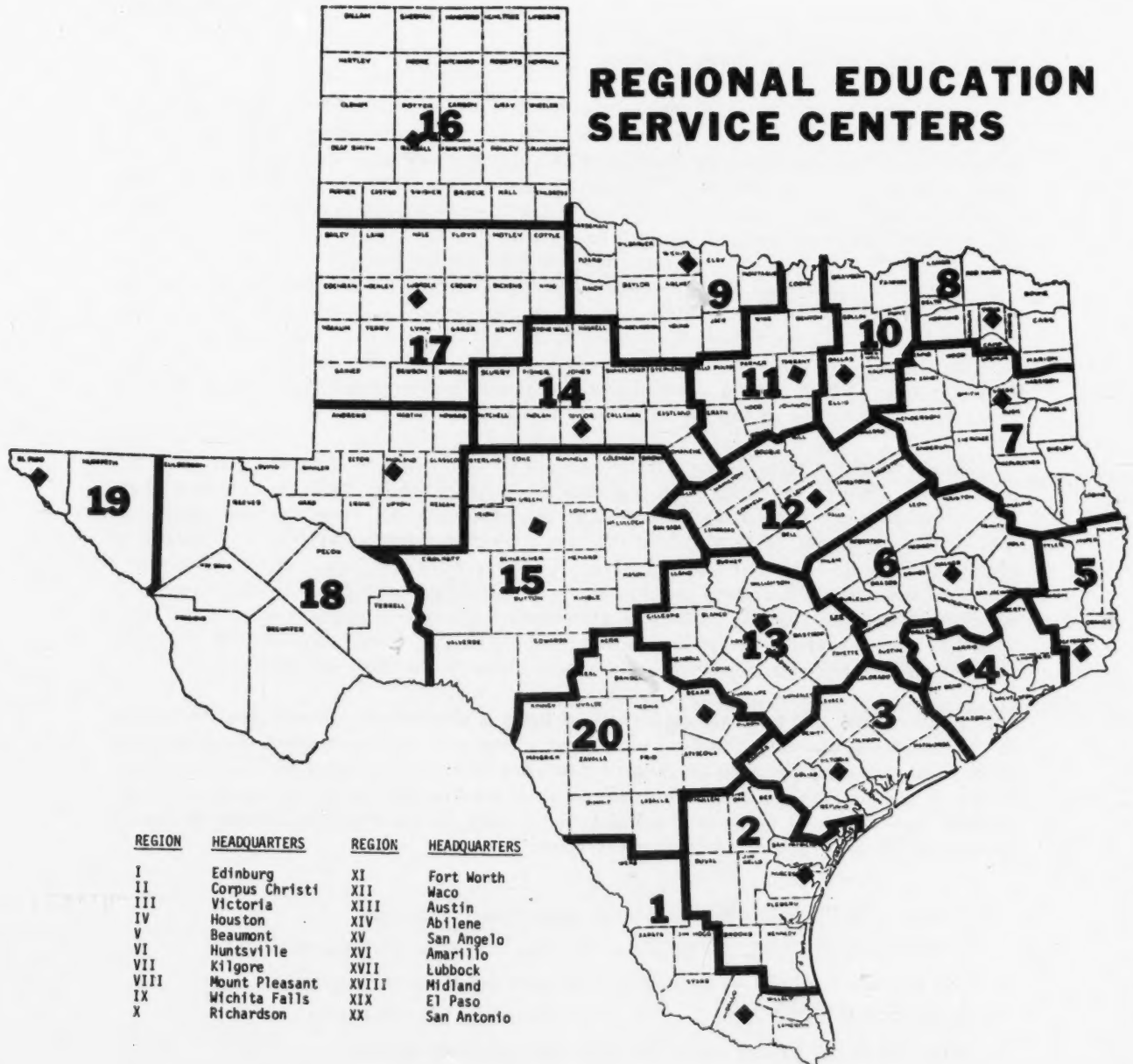
A few years ago professional educators and interested citizens took the first step toward making cooperative educational services available to all Texas children. This step was to request matching funds from the Legislature to be used along with local funds to buy film strips and audio-visual materials. Recognizing the value of this new approach the 59th Legislature answered the request by authorizing the State Board of Education to set up media (audio-visual) centers throughout the state by September of 1967. Just prior to this state action the Congress enacted the Elementary and Secondary Education Act which, among other things under Title III, earmarked funds for supplementary education centers and thus pointed the way for federal-state-local cooperative planning to meet locally oriented needs. Then in 1967 the 60th Legislature considerably broadened the scope of services to be offered by the centers thereby making the whole concept more comprehensive. The state has been divided into twenty regions, each to contain a service center designed to provide services to school districts in its area in response to the needs of those districts.

Membership in a regional center is not obligatory; to participate or not is a matter for the local school district to decide. There is nothing high pressure about the centers; their operational objective is to make quality ideas, teaching materials, supplementary assistance and services available to local school districts whenever or wherever they are needed or requested. It would be hard to beat a deal like that; especially when you consider that the centers offer services which are not feasible for local school districts to provide for themselves, either because of the expense or the lack of personnel and special equipment. It would seem that the "service center" concept has proven itself since 1,107 school districts (out of a state total of 1,200) are participating in at least one phase of the regional program.

Administering this program on a regional basis is particularly advantageous for Texas due to its size and diversity. The focus on regional planning permits identification and analysis of local education problems by the center's Executive Director, his Board and the Joint Committee. If it is determined that an identifiable local need cannot be met by locally available services, appeal can be made to the T.E.A. for a study to see if adding another service is warranted. At present the principal areas of service are:

- MEDIA SERVICES — Teaching with audio-visual materials.
- CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT — Constant updating of what is taught.
- DATA PROCESSING — Keeping records and reporting via computer.
- IN-SERVICE TRAINING — New ideas through group involvement.
- DRIVER EDUCATION — On-the-road and simulator training.
- INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES — Develop new methods of presentation.
- MIGRANT EDUCATION — For pupils who miss part of the school year.
- PLANNING — Ideas and implementation at all levels.
- PUPIL APPRAISAL — Identifying pupil problems and potentials.
- SPECIAL EDUCATION — Educating pupils with handicaps.

REGIONAL EDUCATION SERVICE CENTERS



The foregoing list is not static; tomorrow it could grow as school districts express additional needs. Nor is the list inflexible; innovation and modification of services is encouraged when the goal is better education. As is easily understood, no one center offers all of these services nor is it likely that any region or local school district could make use of them all. The centers develop and offer only those services with a proven need priority in a particular area.

Of particular interest to us are the centers involved in Migrant Education services and language proficiency aids. From the very beginning of this program four of the regional centers with large migrant populations have had a migrant specialist on their staffs. The number has now increased to eight centers whose respective staffs are tied in with the Migrant and Preschool Program administered by the T.E.A. and which presently serves approximately 60,000 children. Prominent among these centers is Region I in Edinburg which has included a bilingual project in its regular migrant program. This project, now in its fourth year, is under the direction of Mr. Alfonso Ramirez, who along with his staff of twelve and \$200,000 a year from the Office of Education in Washington, has been developing teaching aids and systems for improving the quality of bilingual education. Although his working area is restricted to the Lower Valley, this year Mr. Ramirez and his staff are overseeing 22 kindergarten, 15 first grade and 10 second grade classes as well as handling a flood of inquiry mail requesting materials and orientation.

There are two places where migrant children should have educational facilities furnished them; at home base and in the work area. Of course Texas can do nothing about the facilities or programs at the interstate destination points but the intrastate work areas are of our concern. Even if the child makes a half dozen temporary stop overs in his yearly perigration it is our responsibility to furnish him with educational continuity if at all possible. And here is where the In-Service programs work out so nicely with their two way approach. Since the migrant pupils remain but a short time in any given area it is not feasible to hold in readiness a full-blown program for them but the In-Service "coming and going" system can often render the needed services. The first part of this operations system is for the district teachers and personnel to come to the center office at night, on Saturdays or on their leave time to study and receive instruction in phases of their special subject areas (in this case it would be migrant and bilingual courses) and then return to their own classes to put into practice what they had learned. The second approach is when center consultants or specialists go to school districts to work with groups of teachers in their home areas. Although it is somewhat inconvenient to leave the center office and its facilities, this "going" approach does allow the consultant the opportunity to make on-the-spot procedural decisions plus the added advantage of being able to evaluate the results right at the scene.

In a few short years the Education Service Center concept has become an important adjunct to the T.E.A.'s educational effort. Having a reliable place to go for answers to problems, to borrow expertise and materials, is a big relief for those who direct local school districts — as a matter of fact, last year it was \$25 million of relief!

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Current Developments

Adult Migrant Education:

In this area real accomplishment in education is much more difficult and costly than it is with children. The adult is less available, has more family and personal responsibilities and preoccupations and, as often as not, he feels that it is already too late so why try and catch up. However, many agencies and organizations are involved in trying to teach adult migrants and progress is being made.

It is not necessary to convince the reader that the educational level of the adult migrant is very low. Just how low and just how average is impossible to state with any authority. However, to give an idea of what we are working with we will repeat the figures shown in last year's report that had been compiled by the Texas Employment Commission two years ago when they interviewed almost 1,000 migrant families of the Lower Valley while making up their sample for the Experiment and Demonstration Migrant Project that the reader is already familiar with. Using a team of rural outreach interviewers the families were visited and a questionnaire completed. The results as related to heads of family and working adults of 17 and older were as follows:

	Number of Years of Formal Education					
	<u>0</u>	<u>1 — 3</u>	<u>4 — 5</u>	<u>6 — 7</u>	<u>8 — 9</u>	<u>10 & over</u>
Head of family	27.8%	28.7%	16.4%	15.4%	7.0%	4.7%
Working Adults	14.4%	12.4%	16.3%	20.0%	18.9%	18.0%

These figures show that over 70% of the family heads had five years or less of schooling and in reality probably function at a much lower level. They also show 60% of the non-family head (including young adults) group as having six years or more which indicates that our efforts at reaching the young are improving. The data are, of course, based on voluntary answers and no testing device was used to try and verify them, hence we are actually dealing with possible years of "exposure" to education which is not necessarily a measure of achievement. Going to school off and on for five years does not always mean that one's educational level is the fifth grade. However, the main point to be made does not depend on the absolute accuracy of the above figures but rather on the obvious fact that almost two-thirds of all migrant adults are "functional illiterates"; this must be rectified.

From the very beginning of program development for migrant adults it was found that the bilingual approach was as necessary as it was with the children whether the program consisted of basic education or skill training. This was strikingly apparent when many adults could not respond in writing in either language when asked to fill out program application forms. It follows then, that if any minimum requirements for program participation were set up, the most needy (the two-thirds shown above) would be rejected. Programs had to be designed to accommodate the adults of this near zero attainment level but at the same time not hold back the progress of other better prepared participants. At present there are several on-going programs that start by stressing language proficiency using English-as-a-second-language in order to open the door to other subjects and the final goal of vocational and skill training. Here success is by no means easy, it takes much time, patience, money and dedication.

Texas State Technical Institute:

This technical school came into being when the legislature in 1965 authorized the Texas A&M system to establish a training school at the abandoned James Connally AFB in Waco. In January 1966 James Connally Tech opened its doors to 70 students. Today the enrollment is 3,000 and the students can now choose from fifty-seven different courses. The almost immediate success of this first institute for occupational training provided convincing evidence to support the forthcoming request for autonomy and expansion. This was acted on by the 61st Legislature and in 1969 the T.S.T.I. was granted independent status and funds for expansion and soon the Office of Education demonstrated its support through federal grants. Since that time three new campuses have been established at Harlingen, Amarillo and Sweetwater.

The Rio Grande campus in Harlingen is of particular interest to us as it serves the people we treat with in this report. This school started with 40 students in 1967 using a converted gym at the former air base for classroom space. Today the enrollment exceeds a thousand and classes are conducted in a new, multi-million dollar complex of buildings complemented by excellent and economical dormitory housing in converted and refurbished barracks. Here, at the southern tip of the state, 90% of the students are Mexican American and many of these are youths from migrant families getting their first real chance for skills training and placement in a job. All of the instructors at the Rio Grande campus are bilingual which understandably aids in the learning process of some of the students, however the first language of instruction is English.

Of equal importance with preparation is placement — to prepare for a job that is not forthcoming is frustrating to both the institute and the student. Anticipating this need from the very beginning, T.S.T.I. has, on all campuses, counselling service and job research as well as a close working arrangement with the Texas Employment Commission's local offices and its statewide jobs bank. This coordinated effort seems to be effective as many of the trainees are being granted job interviews even before graduation and the Institute's total placement record is above ninety percent. As more and more young people realize that they will need skills to obtain good jobs in tomorrow's world we can envision a steady increase in enrollment and the establishment of additional campuses to the Institute.

Technical-Vocational Education in Texas:

Of highest priority among the "Goals for Texas" as delineated by Governor Preston Smith is that of improving and encouraging technical-vocational education. For many years Governor Smith has been a relentless crusader for occupationally oriented education and when he assumed the chief executive's chair he began to effectively do something about it. The Advisory Council for Technical-Vocational Education in Texas was constituted under PL 90-576 (the Vocational Amendments of 1968) and this twenty-one member Council held its first meeting in March of 1969. Almost immediately it was reconstituted under provisions of SB-261 of the 61st Legislature and began to function with the new fiscal year starting September 1, 1969. As stated in its mandate, the purpose of the Council is "To establish a climate conducive to the development of technical, vocational and manpower training in educational institutions in the State of Texas to meet the needs of industrial and economic development of the state."

Current Developments

Until recently education managers and planners seem to have placed more emphasis on the "process" of education while paying little attention to the "product" of education. Is the product prepared for a career or satisfying employment? More and more frequently the answer is "no". Here then, we have the underlying reason for the Council's insistence on a "redirection" of our state education system (as proposed in the Council's first annual report) by suppressing the strictly academic and upgrading the status of, and interest in, technical-vocational education. A survey of our secondary schools shows that approximately 75% of the students are taking college preparatory programs. However, another study by the American Vocational Association (AVA) predicts that by 1975-76 our skilled work force will require the following makeup: 20% college degree, 25% technical education and 55% occupational training. If this projection of our work force mix is realistic we are going to encounter a serious occupational imbalance if three out of four preparatory students insist that college is the only way to go.

Recent data indicate that probably more students are aware of that stated in the previous paragraph than we had thought. During the last two decades our high school enrollment increased by 178% (to 740,000) and vocational enrollment increased by 175% (to 250,000). Here we see virtually equal growth rates over a twenty year period but the significant part is that during the last two years of this period the rate of vocational enrollment increased three times as fast as that for regular high school indicating a turn toward career preparation and job security. The concept of Career Education will be receiving much more national and local publicity and our Texas Plan will be among the most active in stimulating the idea through tech-voc education.

New Look at HEW:

This past year the Department of Health, Education and Welfare has called many regional and area meetings throughout the nation to familiarize state government officials with its new Operational Planning System (OPS) for short and long range planned coordination between the Department and the separate states to realize a higher degree of efficiency in reaching program objectives. This new approach will bring the Federal Regional Councils into direct participation as liaison with the respective state agencies which carry out HEW strategies at the state/local level.

In essence, what we are saying is that by "regionalizing" itself the Office of Education of the HEW is in a more expeditious position to cooperate with state efforts to provide a wider scope to education and to uniformly upgrade the quality of education. National education should, and will, become a two-way street. The Office of Education will be listening more and assisting more, the states will be relieved of much of the federal red tape burden and be given greater flexibility and greater responsibility for meeting their own educational needs as determined by themselves.

The working results under this new scheme of things remain to be seen, however, the Austin meeting of involved state agency heads gave its approval to this "new look" and pledged to cooperate in every way possible — after all, there is much to be gained.

B. HOUSING:

Housing, whether evaluated from an international, national or local point of view, always seems to perpetuate the word; shortage. The meaning of this word is then made more vivid by use of descriptive words such as; critical, disastrous, inexcusable, chronic, etc., all intended to convey the idea that nationally we are in (continue to be in) a housing crisis. There are two separate and distinct factors that exert real pressure on housing and prevent it from ever reaching a balance between supply and demand. Consider the uncontrollable variables of population increase, population displacement (rural to urban to suburban and now back to rural), construction costs, money availability, labor conflicts, etc., as influencing local demand and supply. Then consider the effect of change in acceptable housing standards which often dictates that yesterday's "adequate" housing is today's "inadequate" housing and is therefore branded substandard thereby creating a new housing demand or at least a basic improvement effort. Is it any wonder that the battle for decent housing for all proves so difficult to win? And unfortunately, it seems that regardless of plans, programs and expenditures little headway is apparent in ameliorating the situation.

We do not want to belabor the reader with repetition but we do wish briefly to upgrade data and comments on housing with which our migrant farm workers must contend and later discuss two recent developments in Texas that are certain to help improve our over-all housing picture.

Travel Housing:

Housing for migrants while on the move is generally a hit or miss proposition depending, more than anything else, on finances. If advanced travel monies permit, families and crews can afford to stop at cheap courts or motels. If money is limited (which is most often the case) parking under a roadside tree or staying in a public camp ground is about the extent of choice unless they wish to spell off drivers and drive straight through to their work destination. Fending for themselves has been the norm for traveling migrants since the local attitudes they encounter enroute have always been either indifference or open hostility; seldom were they welcome.

Today the social attitude of the public toward migrants is slowly changing from one of tolerance to acceptance, and in some cases, to an active concern to assist. This, however, is not true in respect to travel rest facilities. We know of only three places in the entire Midwest where our migrants travel, that offer complete and supervised rest stop facilities — none is within the state of Texas. The rest stop with the largest visitor count, the longest operating experience and the longest season (nine months) is the Migrant Labor Center in Hope, Arkansas. In previous reports we have gone into detail about the Center so here we will merely update the statistical data. The Center is in its second decade of service to migrant travelers but has been at its present location only since 1965 so the comparative figures shown on the following page date from that year.

Current Developments

Visitors to Hope, Arkansas Center

1965 — 17,905	1969 — 55,652
1966 — 28,237	1970 — 56,513
1967 — 41,676	1971 — 48,653
1968 — 48,593	

The loss in "clients" using the Center last year is due to the many times mentioned reduction in work seeking travelers but also because last year saw the completion of IR-30 which effectively by-passes Hope for through traffic.

Although designed and built as a service center the rest stop in Hope offers many opportunities for data and information gathering and it is hoped that the Center will remain active (at present it is funded on a one-year contingency basis) as it is the only on-stream location where interviews are possible and where demographic information can be compiled from the visitor's registration forms. Recapping these forms we find that the on-stream demographic make-up has varied but slightly over the years; the last three years illustrate this.

PERCENTAGE OF:	Youth Under 16	Total Workers	Workers Male	Workers Female
1969	39.6%	60.4%	52.0%	48.0%
1970	40.3%	59.7%	51.5%	48.5%
1971	40.0	60.0%	51.8%	48.2%

Near Liberty Center in Ohio the state has built the Ohio Migrant Reception Center which was inaugurated in July 1966 and which offers basically the same services as Hope but with somewhat better facilities and the added advantage of a full time state employment service staff member on duty with the latest information on statewide crops and work opportunities. Heretofore this Center was strictly a seasonal operation for transient farm workers but this past year the living quarters were temporarily modified to accommodate ten families on a semi-permanent basis. These families, through interviews and counselling, were chosen as good "settling out" prospects so were afforded this housing while taking basic ed. and skill training courses in preparation for full time employment. We are awaiting the results of this experiment.

Last year a Migrant Way Station was established at Fort Campbell, Kentucky by the United Migrants for Opportunity, Inc. of Mt. Pleasant, Michigan under a multi-agency grant. Services available were lodging, cooking facilities, medical attention at the camp clinic, auto repair facilities and a departing full tank of gasoline. The Station was open only from August 1 to October 18 and almost all of the visitors were returning Texans. Although the total visitors fell short of the five hundred budgeted for, the Way Station nevertheless proved its worth as without exception all of the visitors were in need of aid or services. This situation was prevalent throughout the nation; last year was a very poor year for most migrants.

Work Area Housing:

Here again we encounter a situation of diminishing returns both for owner and for occupant. We are dealing with large on-farm and processor multiple housing (labor camps), small farm units and rentals in destination states as well as here in Texas. What was adequate housing a few years ago is now inadequate, while costs to recondition substandard housing is increasing occupancy time is decreasing and if the minimum standards for acceptable, "decent" (to use the law's word) housing for agricultural workers set by the Department of Labor are not met the owner is denied government recruiting assistance. We, equally as much as anyone, want all labor housing upgraded to at least the decent level but we wonder if castigating the owner for noncompliance is the right approach. Somehow an equitable solution must be found whereby the migrant worker is afforded decent housing without working undue hardship on the grower or camp owners.

We suggest that the government encourage the housing owners to invest in new housing or improvements (to also meet the Occupational Safety and Health Administration standards) by either directly sharing in the cost, by permitting immediate write-off instead of term amortization or depreciation, or by some similar economic device that will accomplish the same end. In this manner the worker is better housed, the owner's financial burden is less onerous and the Department of Labor gets back in the recruiting and employment service business where it should be. It seems to us that cooperation is preferable to coercion; doesn't the dramatic decline in the government's participation in employment services over the last four years indicate that this idea is worth a try?

Another development occurred last year that could affect the quality of on-farm and processor housing concerns the validity of and the respect for the No Trespassing sign. A federal court decision has dissolved the sanctity of controlled access to housing by owners by declaring that the workers housing is inalienably a part of his compensation (whether he pays rent or it is free) and is thus subject to free access as would any other residence which he might be occupying. Owner reactions vary from, "This is the last straw" to "No comment", so it is difficult to prophesy what the effect, if any, this decision will have on labor housing in the future.

Last year Texas joined thirty-two other states by writing its own labor housing law. The 62nd Legislature's approval of HB-1254 (L. Cruz) established rules and regulations governing labor housing and delegated the authority for inspection, licensing and enforcement to the State Department of Health. Funds have been provided for inspectors and additional staff and housing owners are being contacted and cataloged. The Migratory Labor Camp Law provides that owners may be granted a provisional permit, valid for six months, which is deemed sufficient time to prepare their housing for final inspection and the respective one-year operating permit. The objective of the health department is to have all labor camps and farm housing conform to the new legal standards as soon as possible but without the use of unreasonable pressure on the owners. Undoubtedly there will be a considerable amount of housing abandoned or destroyed for the reason that economically the cost of repairs and improvements is unjustified (much of our gin housing falls in this category) and approved housing may be in short supply for our intrastate migrants. This is a calculated risk that must be taken if we are

migratory labor camp laws

RULES AND REGULATIONS



Texas State Department of Health

MIGRANT LABOR CAMP PERMIT

Date _____

Certificate Number: _____

Name of Camp

Whose camp is located at _____
has reasonably complied with the minimum health and sanitation standards for Texas Migrant Labor Camps, and
hereby certified for operation of a migrant labor camp. This certificate is valid until the expiration date unless
recalled by the Commissioner of Health or his authorized representative. The expiration date for this permit is
June 30, 19____

Verification



State Commissioner of Health

Date _____

Migrant Labor Camp Inspection Program
Texas State Department of Health
1100 W. 49th St., Austin, 78756

to move forward with the intent of the law; that of providing the transient agricultural worker with decent housing. For those who would like a copy of the booklet describing the law, rules and regulations, just write to the address shown on the opposite page.

Home Base Housing:

Whether we are considering migrant home base housing in the Rolling Plains, in Bexar County (San Antonio) or the Lower Rio Grande Valley, the type and quality of the home invariably depends on what the migrant can afford and how he takes care of it. Factors bearing on the appearance and adequacy of the housing include the location (urban, rural or in a barrio or colonia), whether it is occupant owned or rented, what the yearly occupancy time is, family size, age of family head, personal pride, etc. With so many variables, it is safe to say that migrant housing stands at no fixed quality level but varies from fair, to poor to deplorable. Since most migrants earn less than the poverty minimum, their homes are generally a reflection of this economic privation and therefore fall into the last two categories mentioned. Somewhat in substantiation of this was the conclusion reached, two years ago, by an Economic Development Administration (EDA) survey that 80% of the migrant and farm worker housing in the Lower Valley was inadequate and structurally substandard. Here, inadequate referred to physical appearance and the lack of services (other than electricity and mail delivery).

This situation, if true, is indeed alarming and was one of several contributing factors that culminated in a statewide general housing survey last year that was sponsored by the Texas Department of Community Affairs. Housing improvement is among the priority items in the "Goals for Texas" but before a decision can be made as to where we should go with housing and how to get there, we must first determine where we are in housing; hence the survey. The "Texas Housing Report" has now been published and those interested may obtain a copy by writing to the Department of Community Affairs, c/o The Governor's Office, Austin.

The survey was conducted by an independent firm of professional researchers employing the most advanced techniques in statistical compilation. Somewhat more than 12,000 dwellings were evaluated for appearance and quality using a numerically sliding scale from 1.0 through 7.0 and 4,000 in depth interviews were included to better understand the needs and opinions of the occupants. The use of the numerical scale was to assure evaluation uniformity and avoid the variance that could occur in the use of words such as "poor", "standard", "dilapidated", etc., as interpreted by different field enumerators. Further, it should be stated that the dwelling sample adhered very closely, percentagewise, to the state's ethnic make-up as revealed by the 1970 Census: 75% White, 14% Mexican American and 11% Black.

It is not this Commission's intent to extract the entire report nor to introduce any critical comment on this very comprehensive survey, however we do wish to present some of the findings and conclusions which should be of interest to our readers. The table on the following page shows the "quality" ratings of occupied housing in Texas, which is the fundamental rating on which the whole survey is structured.

OCCUPIED HOUSING UNITS BY QUALITY RATINGS

Quality Ratings	Percent	Number x(000)
1.0 - 2.9	61.6	2,144
3.0 - 3.9	23.2	796
4.0 - 4.4	5.7	196
4.5 - 4.9	5.2	178
5.0 - 7.0	4.3	148
Total	100.0	3,432

Based on the 12,000 exterior evaluations we see that 84.8% (ratings of 1.0 — 3.9) of all housing was rated as being in sound condition, which leaves 15.2% (ratings of 4.0 or worse) as likely to have serious deficiencies. Applying these proportions to the total count of housing units reported in the 1970 Census, the table indicates the number of units to be found in the state in the different quality categories. Taking the most severe definition (rating of 5.0 or worse) the findings show there are at least 150,000 units classified as definitely "substandard" and just over 500,000 units below the threshold of 3.9 where deficiencies of varying importance exist. It is conceded that many of the close to 4.0 rated units could move above the 3.9 rating with only minor improvements thus it is felt that the maximum number of units that could be considered substandard is probably closer to 350,000 (approximately 10% of the state's total units) and range down to the 150,000 mentioned above, about which there is no question about their quality rating.

A comparison of statewide housing quality by ethnic groups, above and below the 3.9 threshold, is shown in the following table which is broken out of the basic data contained in the above table.

QUALITY RATING AND ETHNIC GROUP OF OCCUPANTS

Quality Rating	Number (000)	%	Ethnic Group					
			White (Anglo)		Mexican American		Black (Negro)	
			Number (000)	%	Number (000)	%	Number (000)	%
1.0 - 3.9	2,910	84.8	2,355	91	309	68	246	63
4.0 - 7.0	522	15.2	233	9	144	32	145	37
Total	3,432	100.0	2,588	100	453	100	391	100

These figures confirm the already known fact that the minorities have inferior housing compared to the Anglos but it is nevertheless a shock to realize that percentagewise they are both more than twice the 15.2% average-of-total in the substandard rating.

From the worth of incidental information resulting from the 4,000 interviews with occupants we have chosen some that should be of interest.

	Total %	Quality Ratings				
		1.0-2.9 %	3.0-3.9 %	4.0-4.4 %	4.5-5.9 %	5.0-7.0 %
Total Family Income in 1970:						
Less than \$2,000	13.1	6.4	20.9	19.1	29.7	44.2
\$2,000 to \$4,000	14.4	10.4	17.1	25.7	30.9	26.5
\$4,000 to \$8,000	29.0	25.1	37.6	40.2	31.0	21.6
\$8,000 to \$12,000	20.0	24.4	15.8	10.7	5.2	6.8
\$12,000 or More	23.5	33.7	8.6	4.3	3.2	.9
Incidence of Receiving Financial aid:						
Social Security	20.9	18.9	24.6	23.0	23.6	25.9
Disability Payments	3.0	2.7	3.6	2.7	1.8	6.8
Welfare Payments	3.4	.8	6.1	8.0	11.3	13.0
A.F.D.C. Payments	.9	.2	1.0	2.8	3.3	4.3
 Satisfaction of Occupant:						
Dislike Home and Neighborhood	4.0	1.8				20.0
Like Both Home and Neighborhood	82.8	88.4				<u>57.3</u>
 Household Composition:						
Houshold With Two Heads	79.4	85.1				
Household With Male Head Only	4.0	1.9				8.8
Household With Only Female Head	16.6	13.0				<u>35.5</u>

Some questions come to mind; "Why would any family earning \$12,000 or more a year live in substandard housing (rating 4.0 or worse)?" — "Is it possible that 82.8% of all occupants are content with their homes and neighborhoods, or that 57.3% of those living in dilapidated housing are likewise content?" — "Why is it that four times as many female run households, than male run households, live in the poorest housing?"

"Perhaps no other household characteristic is so penetrating in describing housing conditions as family income", financial standing correlates directly to housing quality so is it any wonder that our migrant families live in the 5.0 - 7.0 housing? From the above figures we see that 70% of the occupants of the lowest grade housing have family incomes of less than \$4,000 per year.

C. HEALTH:

Here again we treat the matter of migrant Health after Education and Housing. We have stressed the importance of improved education and housing in the struggle to bring our migrants into the mainstream of national life. Government experts, scholars and politicians agree that seeking remedies for the deficiencies in these two areas should merit our highest priority, and thus it has been. After all, without some basic education it is impossible to comprehend about health and without adequate housing it is impossible to control environmental health. Further, without education how can one learn about hygiene and its importance, about nutrition, about sanitation, or immunization, etc. But then one wonders; "What is anything in this life worth without good health?" Health is the key to learning and earning — without it one can accomplish neither. Perhaps the order of our priorities is incorrect, maybe Health should be first. You can be assured that our health department people and our rehabilitation people feel that health care should be number one!

Our Texas State Department of Health Migrant Health Project is an outgrowth of the Migrant Health Act of September 1962 and was started during June of 1963 to provide health services to the migrant farm worker and his dependents. This Act authorized an appropriation of \$3 million for a three year period to commence improving the "health services and conditions of migrants". From the inception program progress was hampered by lack of knowledge of the target people on the part of the health professionals, the communities involved and the migrants themselves concerning health care needs, by a lack of adequate resources and facilities, frequent rejection by uninformed communities, insufficient funds, etc. However, the experience of those first three years proved, without a doubt, how desperate the health needs of the migrants actually were. This led to a three year extension of the program with the addition of a hospital component to enlarge the scope of services.

Further extensions and additional funds helped our Texas project grow from a beginning of three local clinics to a peak of 27 in 1969 and to last year's count of 20 operational units. Six of these were integrated into the operations of state affiliated local health departments, four were in counties with state affiliated departments, while the other ten operated in counties that have no other health agency. Even though drastic modifications were necessary in 1969 (program's 6th year) due to a substantial reduction in federal funds, renewed encouragement for project expansion came with the March 1970 amendment to the Act (PL 91-209) extending it for three years. The funds authorized under the amendment were \$20 million for FY-'70, \$25 million for FY-'71 and \$30 million to be used in FY-'72. Although the amounts actually appropriated and spent were \$14 million and \$18 million respectively, it is nevertheless a spellbinding increase over the original million-dollars-a-year. The amendment also contains a new sentence "...also use funds to provide health services to persons who perform seasonal agricultural services similar to the services performed by domestic agricultural migrant workers..." as well as the new words "provide a continuity in health services for..." which gives us the basis for interstate referral coordination.

The hospital care component of the project has been discontinued because of high costs but a parallel component, dental services, was established and the records show a steady

yearly increase in patients treated and services rendered. Last year 80% of the local projects offered some type of dental attention.

Migrant Dental Services

	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>
Projects with dental components	17	19	16
Migrants receiving some dental service	1,079	1,395	3,380
Number of dental clinic visits	2,410	2,840	7,519
Number of dental services rendered	6,105	7,766	12,169
Average visits per patient	2.23	2.03	2.22
Average corrections per patient	5.65	5.56	3.60
Average cost per patient	\$37.31	\$24.93	\$16.60
Average cost per visit	\$16.70	\$12.25	\$ 7.48
Average cost per service	\$ 6.59	\$ 4.48	\$ 4.62

Family planning continues to receive emphasis as an essential health service. The steady increase in public interest and number of program participants gives ample proof of the logic of this statewide health project. The program of counseling, examinations, descriptive literature, instruction and supplies is a coordinated effort involving our Department of Health, the Texas O.E.O. and Planned Parenthood-World Population — all with executive offices in Austin. This last year Planned Parenthood created a new position of Migrant Coordinator for the five state Southwest Region to aid in program growth and to help implement the organization's interstate referral system which is aimed at continuity of services to the participant while on stream, regardless of where she may be.

Before leaving the Migrant Health Program a brief review of some specific areas of activity is in order:

1) Health Education Services. The position of Health Educator has been provided since the beginning of Migrant Program but it was not filled until March of 1970. The Program was fortunate in hiring a public health master, who not only is experienced and bilingual but is blessed with boundless energy to get the job done. The health educator's goal was to reach people through live demonstrations and by placing special emphasis on child care and nutrition. To accomplish this she has relied extensively on visual materials, such as movies and slides, printed materials in both English and Spanish in the form of loose sheets, posters and booklets and on audience participation in demonstrations. By the use of questionnaires she polls the different projects and is thus able to stress the topics that they have requested during her visits.

2) Environmental Health. This broad field is under the guidance of the Program's sanitation consultant and his three area field men. Their duties have been materially increased in connection with the implementation of the new Migratory Labor Camp Law, which

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we covered under Housing, and hopefully the promulgation of the law's rules and regulations will stimulate more general interest in the condition of our environment.

3) Computer Data Processing. A card file for all migrants is being assembled which will contain their health history and future services needed. The data bank, designed for referrals, is being used when services are required (either in the work area or at home base) and once the service is performed it is then taped on the permanent record. Headway has been slow due to insufficient clerical staff, however last year in July all projects were standardized into using only one form and this is expected to speed up matters. During last year 509 referrals for services were sent by Texas to thirty-two states and 1,552 were received by Texas from twenty-three states.

4) National Digest. This is a listing of all of the areas in the nation offering services to migrant families and gives the exact location of their clinics and service centers. When a migrant's work destination is known he is referred to the nearest facility, which in turn is informed of his approximate arrival and the service needed.

Vocational Rehabilitation:

The word "rehabilitation" is by no means new in the dictionary and is defined as: "To restore to former capacity". This definition has seldom been challenged as it seems to convey the idea, equally well for humans as for material things, that repairs and corrections can be made and an acceptable degree of normalcy will result. A few decades ago, however, the people involved in the process of restoring human beings found that there was much more to the problem than simply restoring to former capacity in those cases where restoration was possible. Physical restoration was not enough; what about the emotional shift, social adjustment, economic stability, etc.? And what if "former capacity" was not attained? Also, what about those persons with little or no initial capacity? By dint of repetition these questions and others had to be confronted and answered. In recent years rehabilitation efforts are being structured around an alternative dictionary definition: "To fit to make one's livelihood". Hence, it now becomes an employment/occupational consideration in addition to being a health consideration.

In a long overdue move the Congress in 1920 laid the ground work for rehabilitation programs and planning by passing the "Vocational Rehabilitation Act" and thereby established the basis for Federal/State participation in nation-wide rehabilitation efforts. In 1929 Texas started its program which was originally administered by the State Board of Education — and there it remained for the next forty years. In the beginning only physical disabilities were considered and most of them were orthopedic in nature. Over the years, however, more disability groups were drawn into the program until it became indisputable, during the '60s, that this division of the Education Agency should be split off and formed into a separate and autonomous agency or commission. The intensified rate of growth in client load (starting about 1965) precipitated a situation that could only be dealt with by purposeful legislation in the direction just mentioned. This was forthcoming, and on September 1, 1969 the Texas Rehabilitation Commission became a separate state agency in its own right.

This new department of government (TRC) was established by the passing of SB-110 during the first session of the 61st Legislature. The new Commission was instructed to take over all of the functions of the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Division of Disability Determination of the Texas Education Agency, as well as to serve as the principal authority in the state on all matters relating to the rehabilitation of handicapped and disabled persons (except the blind or those with vision disability). All other state agencies engaged in rehabilitation and related services are directed by the Act to coordinate their activities with those of the TRC.

The Commission is administered by a Board consisting of six members appointed by the Governor for six year staggered terms. The Board, in turn appoints a salaried Commissioner and a nine member advisory committee composed of citizens active in the rehabilitation field. Within the Commission there are two distinct divisions, or sections, with significantly different functions: Vocational Rehabilitation (90% of the budget) and Disability Determination (10% of the budget). The first division is involved in the broad spectrum of rehabilitation while the Disability Determination division is under exclusive contract to the Social Security Administration in making eligibility determinations on claims for disability benefits under the Social Security Act.

Although plans had been made to prepare for all possible contingencies under the new status of autonomy, nevertheless the shock of being weaned away from the Texas Education Agency was a very real one. Setting up and equipping quarters, training an expanded staff, creating a state-wide family of staff representatives, establishing an internal data processing and record keeping system to replace that of T.E.A., etc. were not accomplished without a goodly amount of growing pains. Even now, two years later, the Commission is still in a period of rapid program expansion. At present there are more than 180 offices in the state, many of which are coordinated with the activities and services of other agencies in an attempt to make sure that all eligible handicapped individuals are aware of the services of the Commission. To give an idea of how this effort is compounding itself, the total staff of the Commission now exceeds 1,700 people and the last two appropriated budgets have been \$41 million (71/72) and \$42 million (72/73), amounts that would have been unthinkable five years ago.

Despite the fact that TRC is independent, the basic operational procedures in dealing with rehabilitation have varied little over the years and continue to be directionally in accord with the guidelines set down by the "Rehabilitation Services Administration" and the "Social Rehabilitation Services" (both departments of the H.E.W.) as they are the pioneer agencies in the field as well as the principal sources of funding. In addition, the Commission can accept funds and donations from private foundations or non-governmental agencies that may have special stipulations as to how the funds are to be utilized. This allows certain monies to be used in chosen areas of need, within the Commission's general framework, as long as it is not in violation of the Commission's principles or in conflict with the Civil Rights Act. It should be mentioned that a number of rehabilitation programs have been initiated or expanded through the impetus and goodwill of outside financial contributors.

Briefly stated the basic procedure that the Commission follows is to utilize all existing facilities (private, governmental, non-profit) that have a rehabilitation capacity. This can be

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done by contract, by fee for services, or, in some cases, by grants. Some of the Commission's programs can be described as follows:

- 1) A grants plan for construction, expansion or improvement of rehabilitation facilities.
- 2) Grants for projects aimed at increasing the number of persons rehabilitated.
- 3) Grants to provide for occupational training in existing rehabilitation facilities.
- 4) Vocational Rehabilitation Basic Support Services.*

The steps necessary for participation in a vocational rehabilitation program vary considerably, as does the time lapse in processing the applicant, but in general the following minimum criteria must be met:

- 1) Must be of working age (16 years or more).
- 2) Have a disability (physical, mental, behavioral, etc.)
- 3) Be vocationally handicapped.
- 4) Show a reasonable chance that the services rendered will result in gainful employment.

Once an application is made, medical, psychological and vocational evaluations are necessary to help determine eligibility and the type and extent of services necessary to effect rehabilitation. If eligibility is established, the range of services varies according to the client's needs. Services might include counseling and guidance, diagnostic procedures, physical restoration (including surgery, hospitalization, prosthetic appliances etc.), training (including college or university, vocational school, pre-vocational, on-the-job, etc.), transportation, maintenance, occupational tools, equipment, licenses, placement and follow-up. All services provided after eligibility is established are directed toward a planned specific vocational objective.

Diagnostic services and counseling are provided at no cost to the applicant. Likewise, the actual vocational rehabilitation training, regardless of the route it might take, is free and in no way depends on the client's income level or economic ability. However, payment for physical restoration, occupational tools, transportation and subsistence or maintenance services during training does depend, in manner and amount, on the client's economic situation. Those who can are required to pay in proportion to their ability to do so. As the client's disability begins to yield to attention and treatment, increasingly more emphasis is placed on the vocational and skill training. Once training has started every effort is made to move the client along as quickly as his talents and dexterity permit so as to effect job placement as soon as possible; however, the very nature of the individuals involved and the program itself makes it necessary to consider each case separately and on its own merit.

*This is, of course, the Commission's principal function and provides the means for complying with the legislative mandate, "To administer a state program to provide vocational rehabilitation services to the physically or mentally handicapped who have a reasonable expectation of becoming gainfully employed".

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In recent years it has become increasingly more apparent that many handicapped individuals are not aware of the services available to them and, as a result, do not apply for these services. Among the more prominent in this category are the migrant farm workers, and in an effort to reach these people the TRC has placed increased emphasis upon making these individuals aware of its services and objectives while at the same time expanding its staff and services in the Rio Grande Valley. At present there are district offices in Brownsville, Harlingen, Pharr, Edinburg, Laredo and Del Rio plus a Vocational Evaluation Center in Harlingen. One of the Pharr offices, which was opened in September of 1970, has as its primary objective the providing of vocational rehabilitation services to migrants. It has a very capable bilingual staff with both training and experience in relating to the needs of this group. It is apparent that the Commission is successful in reaching these people as the client load percentage increases in the Lower Valley area are higher than anywhere in the state. It should be mentioned that the federal government is much interested in participating in a variety of migrant assistance programs and in the case of the Pharr office it is notably generous with a funding ratio of 90/10 for a period of three years.

Viewing with alarm the inexorable decline in job opportunities for our unskilled farm workers it is hoped that migrants with handicaps or disabilities that prevent them from working at anything other than field work will take advantage of the vocational rehabilitation programs. If gainful employment is in short supply for the unskilled of sound mind and body imagine what it is for the unskilled and handicapped.

In conclusion we would like to report on the Commission's recent performance and its program projection for next year. During 1970 services were provided to more than 80,000 handicapped persons and there were about 12,000 employment placements. In 1971 the number of gainfully employed was over 14,000 for the year. During this same period the Commission rehabilitated 3,517 individuals at a cost of \$8,339,000 (an average of \$2,371 per case) who were either institutionalized or were welfare recipients costing the taxpayers \$8,072,000 a year to maintain — in the one case the cost is an investment and in the other it is an expense. Which is preferable? A major objective for next year will be to stress services to juvenile delinquents, drug abusers and welfare recipients while continuing to up-grade services in the regular program. To this end offices will be established in smaller cities to attend to the rural handicapped and at the same time more metropolitan satellite offices will be opened. We can only wish them every success in this commendable work.

(This material on TRC could have been included in the following section titled "Job Development and Employment" but it was felt it better related to health efforts.)

New Look at HEW:

The new posture of HEW concerning the planning and delivery of health services is exactly the same as the "new look" we discussed at the end of the section on Education. Until now state and local involvement in the different federal public health efforts has been only occasional, erratic and for the most part unstructured; mainly because they were never really a part of the action. Now, as with education, state input and opinion are being requested and local definition of needs and priorities is being sought.

TEXAS STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
MIGRANT PROJECT
NEW AREA ALIGNMENT — 1971



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Federal Regional Council staff people will be explaining what federal initiatives are in the offing and what their goals are so that state people become planning and working partners helping to direct the resources in the direction of optimum effectiveness.

In other words, the national health strategy as implemented by the Health Services and Mental Health Administration (HSMHA) will be more efficient and better able to guarantee equal access of the respective states. Long range planning will eventually bring all aspects of national health care into this two-way system for exchange of information and expertise but for the present the vanguard consists of the following five programs:

- 1) Family Health Centers are being encouraged to improve access to health services in remote rural areas or urban poverty areas where health resources are scarce. They will offer diagnostic and rudimentary curative attention for ambulatory patients and referrals will be made for the more serious cases requiring hospitalization or surgery.
- 2) Areawide Health Education Centers are being established to disseminate a wide spectrum of health information from the basic studies of hygiene to the training and placement of caregiving personnel.
- 3) The National Health Service Corps has been created as another approach to correct a serious maldistribution of health care personnel. Specific areas of critical need are being identified and federal health manpower will be detailed to these areas to coordinate local resources and deliver medical care.
- 4) Health Maintenance Organizations will be formed in an effort medical care delivery systems. These groups will, in a way, take up from where the Family Health Centers leave off and develop a more comprehensive range of medical services.
- 5) Preventive Services is designed to do just that; stop it before it starts, if at all possible. Fundamentally it involves getting out the word through the various media at our disposal and will focus on alcoholism, drug abuse, VD, family planning, etc.

This state agency, although not directly involved with H.E.W., nevertheless wishes to endorse wholeheartedly this new pattern of seeking to accomplish its mandated goals and objectives through use of the Operational Planning System with the state/local agencies.

D. JOB DEVELOPMENT AND EMPLOYMENT:

For the most of us it can be said that satisfactory employment ranks at the top of the priority list right along with maintenance of good health. The word satisfactory means different things to different people but in essence it means that our job or employment should satisfy our economic needs, provide interest and stimulation and offer opportunity for betterment. However, all too few persons can really nod their heads in affirmation that their jobs are satisfactory and fulfilling. This fact is taken into consideration in all programs for job

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development and in counseling for job placement; not just "a" job but "the" job for the particular person. Meeting these criteria makes a happy worker who in turn is a good worker.

Fifty years ago one's work destiny was pretty much a personal matter that depended equally on ambition, opportunity and luck and one was responsible for his own survival; but times have changed. Now we are all a part of the same game of survival, sort of in it together on a national scale, so to speak. Economy, like progress and prosperity, is national in scope and we are all affected by it, so it is only natural that the national government should now assume the principal role in employment orientation and employment security since they are economy-controlled.

Almost half a century ago the Department of Labor became actively involved in the employment business of supplying workers to needy employers. This remained the routine procedure of the employment service until a few years ago. In this regard also, times have changed. The concept that employment departments should be exclusively employer oriented was in error; what about those people who are willing and able to work but for whom there is no job? How about those willing but unable to work — the handicapped? The Department of Labor soon found out that to obtain satisfactory employment requires positive effort (and success) in two equally important areas; education and job training to prepare for a job and then in job development and placement.

Change is also found in the national job mix and in the work force. New occupations are being born (ie. data processing) while old ones disappear (ie. blacksmiths and Pullman porters) and others are on the decrease. Farm workers now number one-fourth of what they did 25 years ago while workers in the service occupations have doubled. All of this has caused a striking metamorphosis in the Employment Service Division of the Department of Labor. So it was that in March of 1969, the Farm Labor Service was changed to Farm Labor and Rural Manpower Service to help break away from the restriction of "farm" and get into the broader field of rural labor resources and its placement. At the end of 1970 the FL&RMS was again renamed and simplified to Rural Manpower Service, stressing the last word. Thus the Manpower Administration programs could be redirected toward the complete employment picture to include small communities and rural areas.

But what exactly is meant by job development and what is the government's responsibility? Should the government actually "create" jobs when the labor pool exceeds job opportunities? There are no clear cut answers but it is certain that the government must intervene to alleviate the hardships of job supply and demand imbalances whether local or national. The government, for instance, must confront the worker displacement caused by agricultural mechanization since these people for the most part are incapable and unprepared for other work. Then too, some industries can actually close and disappear because of circumstances beyond the control of management — and what about the workers? When mines are exhausted, when war oriented industries are shut down provisions must be made for the workers, and welfare is not the answer.

The principal steps taken by the government to establish a backdrop for assistance to job seekers was the formation of the Manpower Administration within the Department of Labor and the passing of the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) in 1962. Here we have the machinery to deliver training, retraining and relocation to match unemployed people

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with jobs. Much has been accomplished by the MDTA and its numerous programs but it was not designed to fill the breach in a national economic emergency such as grew in intensity during 1970 and part of 1971. Realizing this, the Congress passed the Emergency Employment Act which became law in July of 1971 making possible the Public Employment Program (PEP) which actually creates jobs in the public works sector. For the first year the program is supported by \$1 billion in federal money and provision is made to increase this amount to \$1.25 billion for the following year. Some specific guidelines for the program are:

- 1) States cannot use PEP funds to finance jobs that otherwise would be supported by local funds.
- 2) These jobs are "transitional" opportunities to tide workers over until economic conditions improve or they can find regular work.
- 3) PEP money is allocated to the states on a basis of the share of the nation's jobless and the severity of unemployment there.
- 4) States are required to supplement federal funds with a 10% matching share.
- 5) At least one-third of total jobs must be given to Vietnam veterans.
- 6) Minority group persons should be hired in the same ratio as they are represented in the community's jobless ranks.

By the beginning of 1972 there were 100,000 persons holding PEP jobs. The breakdown was: public works and transportation=19% , education = 17% , law enforcement=13% , health activities=9% , parks and recreation =7% , social services =6% , environmental quality =4% , etc.

In Texas it is estimated by the T.E.C. that during FY-72 there will be 1,386,000 Texans in need of manpower services, with 40% of them falling into the disadvantaged category. Another 33% will be in the "all other non-poor" group who are temporarily unemployed. Many of this last category, however, will require retraining as their former jobs have been abolished in the changing labor market and their current skills are no longer needed.

Agriculture employment in the state accounted for 10.1% of the total in 1960 and only 6.4% in 1970 and presently work opportunities for farmers, farm managers and farm workers are being projected for zero expansion in 1972. Where have these people gone and what can be done for them? So, compounding the problem of "kind" of labor required is the "where" of the workers — and it appears that they have gone to the city. This is shown by the following figures indicating the percentage of the population living in the state's twenty-three Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs).

1940	—	31.8%	1960	—	63.7%
1950	—	47.3%	1970	—	73.6%

Texas has the good fortune of having a Regional Office of the Department of Labor in Dallas staffed with experienced Manpower Administration officials in residence and our state has been able to take part in almost all of the nationally sponsored programs for job development, preparation for job and job placement. Some federal programs are detailed in the next section of this chapter.

E. RESUME OF PROGRAMS:

Federal investments in manpower programs will be \$4.25 billion for FY-72 and are expected to increase to \$5.1 billion for FY-73 and the Department of Labor accounts for two-thirds of this total outlay. These are considerable sums and here are some of the major programs administered by the Manpower Administration empowered by the MDTA, PL 87-415 of 1962, and supported by these funds.

WORK INCENTIVE PROGRAM (WIN)

Moves people from welfare to jobs through training and employment. The main thrust is to get participants on Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) welfare rolls into productive job experience. National enrollment is almost 92,000 of whom 86% are heads of family and 72% are women. Persons over 16 receiving AFDC payments are referred by the welfare office to WIN and they must participate, if physically able, or run the risk of having their welfare payment stop. The program offers incentive payments in the form of stipends during the training period in addition to the regular AFDC payments.

NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS (NYC)

This is a three dimensional program funded by O.E.O. and administered by the Manpower Administration designed to provide work and training opportunities for youth from low income families. In-School program (enrollment 120,000) provides high school students with part-time work which helps them to stay in school. Out-of-School program (enrollment 53,000 — 35% Mexican American) provides school dropouts with work experience part of the week and skill training and education the remainder of the time and prepares them for on-job-training or places them directly in jobs. Summer-Vacation-Jobs (enrollment 565,000) provides job training and income during the summer months. This combination preventive and therapeutic program is hailed for its outstanding results.

THE JOB CORPS

Established under the O.E.O. in 1965 it was restructured under the Manpower Administration in 1969 and has as its purpose getting young people from deprived and disadvantaged environments into training for self-supporting jobs. The program is carried out in 58 residential training centers where living together is stressed as being just as important as education and work readiness. Last year's placements came to 81%, thanks in part to the efforts of a non-profit organization called Joint Action in Community Service (JACS) which by use of volunteer workers, aids in finding jobs for Corps graduates and also follows up to see that the placement sticks. Mexican American enrollment has increased to 10% in this program.

JOBS OPTIONAL

This was formerly MDTA On-Job-Training. Helps unemployed and underemployed learn occupational skills on the job; work and earn as you learn. The worker-trainee receives wages from the employer who in turn receives certain subsidy from the government since a trainee's productivity is generally below average. Experience by working in private industry is a valuable asset.

JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN THE BUSINESS SECTOR (JOBS)

Operated by the National Alliance of Businessmen this program brings government and business together to hire hard-core unemployed who receive supportive services while they are

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trained on the job. The government bears the cost of these services and also helps the participating companies with the extra training costs.

OPERATION MAINSTREAM and NEW CAREERS

Two programs funded by O.E.O. and administered by the Manpower Administration. Their thrust is creating jobs in community projects and work training for chronically unemployed poor adult workers in small towns and rural areas. The effect of the new PEP effort on these programs is not yet known. At last count 20% of the participants were Mexican Americans.

CONCENTRATED EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM (CEP)

Another program funded by O.E.O. and delegated to the Department of Labor that provides a one-step delivery system for all manpower and related program services in 82 specific metropolitan target areas of concentrated unemployment. Referrals to other programs or combinations of other programs are used to help these poverty level people obtain and hold a job at a viable economic level. Of last year's 50,000 participants we again find that 20% of them were Mexican American.

SERVICE, EMPLOYMENT, REDEVELOPMENT (SER)

This is a project funded jointly by O.E.O. and the Department of Labor beamed directly at Mexican Americans in the five southwestern states. To reach the goal of permanent employment the program includes basic education, citizenship, pre-vocational and vocational training plus financial assistance in certain cases. In its five years of operation it has shown significant development. The number of SER projects has grown, and the funding for next year has been increased 60% to a total of \$8.6 million.

CONCERTED SERVICES IN TRAINING AND EDUCATION (CSTE)

At present this is a pilot effort sponsored by the Departments of HEW, Labor, Agriculture, Commerce and Interior along with O.E.O. to improve smaller communities and rural areas by proving that education and occupational training, in conjunction with other economic development activities can increase employment opportunities and thus save the area from stagnation or regression. Significantly it is a cooperative venture placing heavy emphasis on involvement of local leaders and organizations and is beamed at the nearly 19 million rural residents, age 25 or older, who have not completed high school and who have a tendency to migrate to urban areas. It is too early to evaluate the project but the interdepartmental task force that designed it for rural assistance to both community and person has great hopes for its success.

NATIONAL MIGRANT WORKER PROGRAM

This is a \$20 million program (once titled the "Last Yellow Bus") announced in June of 1971 by the Secretary of Labor to help 5,800 migrant farm workers prepare themselves to "settle out" of the migrant stream and take year-round employment. Education, occupational training and supportive services will be the tools. It will be jointly funded by O.E.O., HEW and the Department of Labor. The program will cover four geographical areas; three multi-state areas and Texas. Texas has been assigned 2,800 individuals (48%) and \$7.1 million (36%) of the funds. It is interesting to note the on-going programs to be used in the Texas (Area IV) projection and the emphasis on youth as shown by the NYC enrollment.(see following page)

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Program	Age Group	Trainees	Funds Required
N.Y.C.	14-17	1,086	\$2.5 million
M.D.T.A.	18-44	1,232	3.4
Mainstream	over 45	480	1.2
		<u>2,798</u>	<u>\$7.1 million</u>

COOPERATIVE AREA MANPOWER PLANNING SYSTEM (CAMPS)

More than a program CAMPS is a coordinating and unifying device sponsored by the same departments as SCTE (see above) to act as a clearing house for all federal manpower and other related programs. CAMPS committees operate in eight national regions and in all states; however, the basic CAMPS units are the area (local) coordinating committees or groups which are made up of people who actually direct and administer programs at the local level.

Concluding this section we would like to comment on the progress being made in bringing more of our Spanish speaking citizens into educational and occupational training programs and recruiting them for positions in planning and administration. The enrollment of Spanish surnamed persons in federal manpower programs had increased 50% by the end of 1971 over the same period in 1969. During 1971 there were 216,000 Spanish speaking enrollees in all of the manpower programs and over 80% of them were Mexican Americans. More and more Mexican American organizations are receiving direct program grants or are sub-contracting to render services to programs. More material is being prepared in Spanish, many aptitude tests and job applications can now be taken in Spanish — and it is paying off. This is especially true in the fields of Vocational Rehabilitation and Vocational Education. For example, there is a twenty page booklet offered by the Office of Education (HE 5.280:80072, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., 20402, 20 cents) which tells about NEW OPPORTUNITIES FOR EMPLOYMENT, "learning so as to earn". Here we reproduce the title page.

APRENDIENDO PARA GANAR:

**NUEVAS
OPORTUNIDADES
DE EMPLEO**

por medio de la educación

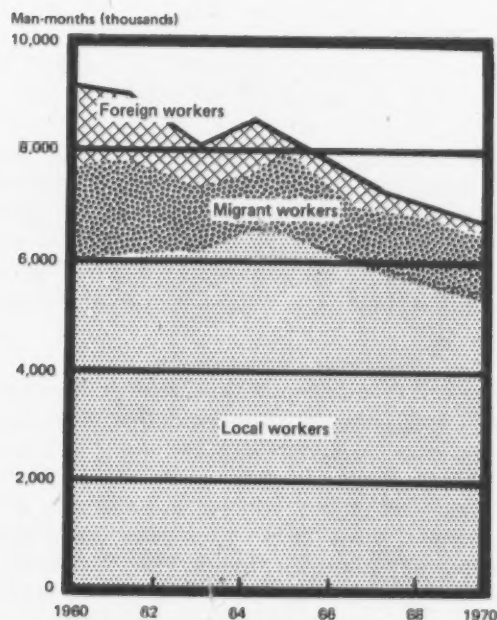
Las Enmiendas de 1968
sobre la Educación Vocacional

TRENDS IN MIGRATION AND SUMMARY OF DATA —1971

In this year's report we are fortunate to be able to take a "decade look" at the trends in farm labor and what has been happening to the three types of workers; local domestic, migratory and foreign. By looking at Figure 1, it can be seen that in 1960, 16% of the total of 9.2 million man-months of labor was performed by foreign contract workers of which 92% came from Mexico. The termination of the Bracero Program, at mid-decade, and the consequent readjustment in meeting seasonal farm labor needs changed the picture drastically. So by 1970 we find that of the 6.6 million man-months of labor used only a bare 1% was performed by alien workers, none of which were Mexicans. Over the decade the worker mix has changed considerably; local workers decreased by 10% migrant workers came down by 29% and foreign workers by 97%.

Figure 1.

Man-Months of Employment of
Seasonal Hired Farmworkers.
by Type of Worker, 1960 to 1970



Source: In-Season Farm Labor Reports of
the Manpower Administration.

Trends and Summary

It is our opinion that we should take a detailed look at the national farm labor scene for the decade before making any comments on the changes in the Texas picture for the same period. As we see in Table I there is no correlation between different states and their farm labor requirements. Factors such as weather, total acreage planted, types of crops and yields influence the labor demand for local and migrant workers from state to state and from one year to the next. An even more important factor for the migrants, however, is mechanization since in the states whose crop lend themselves to mechanization the migrant is generally displaced in favor of the local workers, so then there are fewer out-of-state job orders and fewer referrals.

Table I Man-Months of Seasonal Hired Farm Labor, Selected States
(numbers in thousands)

State	1960	1965	1970	% change decade
California	1,686	1,450	1,356	-20
Texas	2,216	1,385	1,066	-52
Florida	576	674	655	+ 14
Washington	209	272	256	+ 22
Oregon	208	235	207	- 1
Michigan	312	241	183	-41
Ohio	123	146	123	0
New Jersey	106	107	83	-22
New York	146	130	81	-45
United States	9,151	8,079	6,604	-30

Some states, for example California, Texas, Michigan and New York, show an irreversible decline, other states had a temporary increase in labor needs at mid-decade and still others, such as Florida and Washington, actually show a real increase for the decade. Now, let us look at these same states, for the same period, but concern ourselves with only the migratory workers who are a part of the total figures of Table I. This will include intrastate migrants within California, Texas and Florida plus the interstate movements from the supply states of Texas, Florida and others.

Here again we see in Table II that different states have their own trends and none of them seems to follow the national trend, although all together they make up the national trend. For instance, California shows an apparent decade increase in migrant man months of work. This is because when the decade began many aliens were working the fields and when the door to Mexico was closed in 1965, migrant workers hurried to California to fill the void left by the braceros. Thus a state whose total seasonal labor decreased considerably (Table I) is nevertheless actually using more migrant labor now than in 1960. Michigan, where in 1960 one half of all farm work was done by migrants, is the nation's classic example of what happens when mechanization begins to nibble at farm jobs and then in 1967 takes a real big bite — and 1971 will prove to be more of the same. Here the jeopardy for the migrants is double, not only

Table II Man-Months of Migratory Labor, Selected States
(numbers in thousands)

State	1960	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	% change decade
California	279	403	388	313	348	338	307	+ 10
Florida	100	102	102	130	142	128	110	+ 10
Michigan	150	136	132	137	119	112	93	-38
Texas	268	130	89	71	79	72	63	-76
Washington	64	67	76	69	58	60	61	- 1
New Jersey	52	61	63	58	56	45	48	- 8
New York	92	70	60	63	50	46	44	-52
Ohio	77	44	44	52	50	41	44	+38
Oregon	55	52	62	57	49	48	41	-25
Total U.S.	1,674	1,529	1,480	1,410	1,369	1,299	1,181	-29
% change/yr.		-8	-3	-5	-3	-5	-9	

diminished job opportunities but their job sequence is broken which means a full season's employment is virtually impossible. Forced idleness between crops is disastrous for these people whose earnings are poor — even with continuous work. Fundamentally the migrants are a "supplementary" source for farm labor, they are second in line to the local worker and when the job market tightens they are the first to feel it. Thus we find that during a decade of declining job opportunities the proportion of the total man-months performed by local workers advanced from 66% to 81%; the migrant is then getting less of less.

As mentioned before, the type of crops raised in a particular state does much to indicate what the labor demands will be. The key word again is: mechanization. In Table III we see that tobacco, a labor intense crop that has resisted mechanization until now, shows a steady

Table III Man-Months of Seasonal Hired Farm Labor by Crop, 1965 to 1970
(numbers in thousands)

	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
All activities	8,079	7,466	7,099	6,925	6,838	6,604
Percent decrease		-7	-5	-3	-2	-3
All vegetables	1,843	1,736	1,682	1,691	1,547	1,473
All fruits	1,563	1,543	1,505	1,452	1,517	1,367
Tobacco	782	702	673	633	637	635
Cotton	1,117	821	585	551	487	430
All grain	421	395	396	368	407	418
Nursery	188	200	208	241	253	286
Livestock	233	230	223	214	216	234
Hay	281	250	151	260	245	222
Sugar Beets	144	123	139	140	131	77

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national labor need whereas cotton, whose harvesting is now almost completely mechanized, has only one-third the labor demand it did just five years ago and one-fifth of what it was ten years ago. Vegetables, which required 25% of the total farm labor in 1965 dropped to only 22% in 1970 and will continue downward as mechanical technology advances. Fruits, which used 19% of the total in 1965 took 21% of the labor in 1970 as many problems of mechanical harvesting and handling fruits still remain unsolved.

At this time final 1971 figures are not available for the preceding three tables but indications are that the man-months of total seasonal hired farm labor will be down by about 5% and that the migrant labor portion will be down by about 8%.

In farm wage rates the national trend has been upward for more than a decade, but during the last five years there has been an acceleration in the rate of increase. The USDA places the average hourly wage rate (without room or board) at \$1.74 as of July 1, 1971 which is 40% above the rate on the same date of 1966. During the first half of the decade the increase

UNITED STATES:

EMPLOYMENT (worker figures in 1,000s)	1970	1969	1968	1967	1966
Total Employment	78,627	77,902	75,920	74,372	72,898
Agriculture	3,462	3,606	3,817	3,844	3,847
Percentage of Total	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.2	5.3
Seasonal Hired Farmworkers	550	570	578	592	622

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

All Workers	4.9	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.8
Agriculture	7.5	6.0	6.3	6.9	6.6

HOURS AVG./WEEK

Non-agriculture	38.7	39.5	39.7	40.0	40.1
Agriculture	45.7	46.1	46.3	46.5	46.5

WAGES/HOUR

Farm Worker without Room or Board	1.64	1.55	1.44	1.33	1.23
Factory workers	3.36	3.19	3.01	2.83	2.72

TEXAS:

Farm Worker without Room or Board	1.38	1.31	1.23	1.12	1.04
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had been only 21%. The recent acceleration is related primarily to the fact that the federal minimum wage now effects about one-fourth of the hired farm working force and the necessity for many farmers to raise wages in order to compete with industry for workers. It should be brought out that the steepest part of the increase curve occurred between 1966 and 1969 during which time the minimum wage rose from \$1.00/hour to \$1.30/hour in two 15 cent increments but from 1969 to 1971 the uptrend was more moderate (with the exception of Texas) as the minimum wage has remained fixed.

Texas has always been below the national average in farm wages (which this year varies from a low of \$1.26 in South Carolina to \$2.00 in Connecticut and Rhode Island) but last year, as we see, the gap was closed a bit due to better pay in vegetables and preharvest citrus.

	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
¢ under average	21¢	21¢	24¢	26¢	19¢
% under average	16%	15%	15%	16%	11%

Hopefully we could soon meet the national average but the chances are slim since the Lower Valley wages remain about 25% below the state average and are not likely to catch up because that is the way the border area is.

From the chart on the following page we see that total farm placements handled by the Texas Employment Commission have leveled off but the interstate aspect of the T.E.C.'s work with migrants and crews continues in sharp decline. Herewith, however, we would like to update a recap of the interstate migrant make-up; the "mix" remains essentially the same but the total migration is only 40% of what it was in 1967.

Interstate Agricultural Migrant Make-Up
1967-1971

	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
A. Total Individuals	114,979	97,818	85,393	65,844	45,860
a) Male, 16 and over	41,657	33,050	31,163	23,576	18,115
b) Female, 16 and over	33,299	29,568	23,509	17,947	13,236
c) Youth under 16	40,023	35,200	30,721	24,321	14,509
B. Total Workers	78,270	67,829	59,737	45,197	31,351
a) % of Total Individuals	68.0%	69.5%	70.0%	68.7%	68.5%
C. Families	16,524	13,638	11,700	9,311	6,475
D. Unattached males	7,384	8,042	7,871	5,610	5,054
E. Unattached females	2,074	2,257	2,198	1,775	2,031

Note: These figures do not include migrants recruited by Bureau of Labor Statistics licensees or "freewheelers"

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The Annual Worker Plan of the Rural Manpower Service has, since its inception in 1954, provided a means of planning a whole season's work itinerary for migratory crews and families. In reality the plan is a "schedule", matching worker availability with stated labor needs for as much of the season as possible. The two basic purposes of the AWP are to minimize time lost between jobs by the migrant worker and to help provide a dependable labor supply for the farmer/grower who needs it. Several weeks before the work season is to begin employment people in the labor supply states interview families and crew leaders on availability, work experience and work area preference. At the same time the labor demand state's officials are busy determining over-all needs, area needs and specific crop needs. When needs are translated into firm job orders from the employers the first step has been taken, then filling out the Form-369 (a mutual commitment for both farmer and worker) is the final step. But look what has happened to the AWP in Texas according to T.E.C.'s records.

	1968	1969	1970	1971
Total farm placements	234,000	206,000	196,000	197,000
% less than previous year	11%	12%	5%	+ .5%
States sending job orders	34	33	31	27
Job Orders	2,072	1,147	1,005	926
% less than previous year	15%	45%	13%	7%
Job Openings	102,791	67,345	50,027	27,424
% less than previous year	22%	35%	26%	45%
Jobs Referred (filled)	73,460	50,830	35,176	19,753
% less than previous ear	14%	31%	31%	44%
T.E.C. Orders	1,261	699	633	734
% less than previous year	13%	45%	9%	+ 15%
Crews + Family Heads	3,902	3,162	2,300	1,413
Out of State Groups	3,426	3,010	3,090	2,190
Total:	7,328	6,172	5,390	3,603
% less than previous year	17%	16%	13%	33%
Average number of jobs filled per worker	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.03

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The Form-369 has done a very good job of bringing order to what was a chaotic, helter-skelter work/worker situation but since 1967 the AWP has been in real trouble and several things are involved. Mechanization continues to erode the job market and a general economic downturn releases various types of local marginal workers who then enter the agri work force, but the most influential factor seems to have been the federal minimum standards housing regulations. As was explained in the section on Current Developments, farmer/growers whose labor housing does not pass inspection are denied the recruiting services they formerly received from their state employment security people. These employers were forced to devise other means of obtaining the necessary workers. It is obvious, therefore, reducing contacts in the demand states reduces contacts with the supply states; thus less openings, less orders, less referrals and less groups served. Compliance with housing requirements may reverse the present trend, but after looking at four years we consider this statement not a prediction but rather a mere possibility.

In summary, we feel that the trends we have examined through figures and comment are irreversible and will continue. It is possible that some of the change we are observing may slow down quantitatively but there will be no turn-around. Texas' farm worker needs are half what they were ten years ago, caused almost entirely by cotton mechanization, and since 1966 there has been no need for in-migrants and now our agri worker needs are filled by local farm workers and our own intrastate migrants. The trend in mechanization will include more vegetable crops and continue to reduce the job opportunities even for local workers. The trend of increasing agri wages will continue on the interstate stream but at half of the rate of industrial wage increases, and the wages in the border agri areas will remain at 25% less than our state average. The trend for more emphasis and more funds for education and skill training will continue with particular interest in the young to assure their preparation for jobs and careers outside of the migrant stream.

Although migrancy will continue to decline and the stream may become more like a brook, there will always be a need for migrant workers to aid in the preparation and harvesting of our national crops for the foreseeable future. Those that think that soon there will be no migrant problem, are simply deluding themselves.